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THE

ANNUAL REGISTER,

OR A VIEW OF THE

HISTORY,

POLITICKS,

AND

LITERATURE,

For the YEAR 1764.

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LONDON:
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PREFACE.

IT may be proper to acquaint the reader, that the preſent ſituation of affairs has not hitherto obliged us to make any change in the plan of our work. We have endeavoured to procure as many and as various materials as was conſiſtent with our deſire of keeping our collection chaſte, and of preſerving the order and method, which the public indulgence had formerly approved.

If the materials for the foreign hiſtory have, through the felicity of the times, been leſs abundant than in former years, our domeſtic diſſentions have ſupplied the place of thoſe foreign events, and diſplayed a ſcene

almoſt

almoſt as animated, but much leſs hurtful to humanity. Theſe jars, ſuch is the excellent temperament of our conſtitution, have done, and will, probably, do very little miſchief. Without materially checking the neceſſary operations of government, they prevent the minds of men from ſtagnating in a ſtate ſo full of proſperity, as our preſent; and keep alive the ſpirit of liberty at a time, when the real and undiſturbed enjoyment of that invaluable bleſſing might, perhaps, without this ſpur, abate ſomething of that jealous and anxious zeal for its preſervation, which, when once extinguiſhed, is not ſo eaſily kindled. There are times, when the ſpirit of liberty muſt owe ſomething to the ſpirit of faction.

THE

THE

ANNUAL REGISTER,

For the YEAR 1764.

THE

HISTORY

OF

EUROPE.

CHAP. I.

State of Europe. Diſpoſition of Ruſſia. State of the other northern powers. King of Pruſſia his alliances. Revolution in political ſyſtem. Diſtraction of France. Character of the parliaments of that kingdom. Growth of their power.

AFTER ſo extenſive and ſo ſanguinary a war as the laſt, it is neceſſary that Europe ſhould enjoy a long repoſe, to enable her to recover, in any degree, her former ſtrength and proſperity. Happily, indeed, every appearance concurs to aſſure the ſtability of a peace, which is ſo much wanted. It is not the worſt ſecurity for the continuance of this peace, that ſome of the moſt active and the moſt conſiderable of the chriſtian powers, in the midſt of this exterior tranquillity, are by no means in an aſſured ſtate of domeſtic quiet. Strong internal movements ſubſiſt, which draw, for a time at leaſt, their attention from any ſchemes of enterpriſe, and any plans of foreign aggrandiſement.

If we examine into the ſtate of the north, and conſider Ruſſia, the

greateſt nation in that quarter, we ſhall ſee very little reaſon to apprehend from her, a deſign upon her neighbours. And, with regard to any offenſive intentions againſt Ruſſia, they have long ſince ceaſed to compoſe a part in the politics of any power whatever. Notwithſtanding her permanent ſtrength, and an occaſional exertion of it, that are very menacing, I do not find, that there has, even once, been a plan ſeriouſly thought on for the reduction of the greatneſs of Ruſſia, ever ſince the time of Charles XII. which was the period of her entering into the circle of our political ſyſtem. And this was rather an attempt to cruſh her in her infancy, than a plan to obſtruct her further growth, when once become formidable.

From that time ſhe has been growing (not ſo much, perhaps, as might be expected in learning and the arts, but, certainly,) to a very high degree in ſubſtantial power, and in all the reſources that ſupport it; a ſtrong military force, an increaſing commerce, prudent, becauſe, for the moſt part, a lucrative ſyſtem of negotiation; and an unbounded influence over thoſe nations, with whom ſhe has the neareſt connection.

Her friendſhip has been much ſought, and generally paid for. Her armies have been kept up at very conſiderable numbers; and if her troops have not improved, the laſt war evidently demonſtrates that they have not at all declined from that diſcipline to which they were formed by Peter the Great. That commerce, too, of which he was the founder, has been far from languiſhing ſince his death; and the ballance of trade is in her favour with, I believe, all the nations, with whom ſhe has any intercourſe. The emulation, which, for this century paſt, has ſubſiſted amongſt all the maritime countries in augmenting their marine, has, without the exertion of any deep policy on her ſide, operated powerfully in her favour; as nature has made her the great magazine of naval ſtores to Europe.

Nothing ſhews more clearly, that Ruſſia has the ſtrongeſt political ſtamina, than that her condition is ſuch as we have deſcribed it, whilſt her government has undergone very frequent ſhocks and ſudden revolutions, whilſt the throne was ſeldom eſtabliſhed with great ſecurity to the poſſeſſor, and never provided with any ſound and invariable principle of ſucceſſion.

At preſent we cannot ſay that Ruſſia is much improved in theſe particulars. On the contrary, nothing can be more critical than the ſituation of that government.

From hence the north may, in a great meaſure, depend on the continuance of its tranquillity. Sweden and Denmark have, to all appearance, very wiſely abandoned, for a time at leaſt, the character of a military people; and turned their whole attention to their domeſtic improvement. This wiſe plan of conduct will one day prove the moſt ſolid baſis of their power. They will derive from thence a real ſtrength, ſuperior to what they at any time propoſed; ſuperior to what even Sweden, the moſt conſiderable of theſe two nations, obtained by her famous military exploits in the laſt century, and in the beginning of the preſent. This, however, was ſoon loſt, and their ſhort and unnatural ſtrength was followed by

by a long and lasting weakness. Their present politics will certainly produce a power, less striking perhaps, but far less invidious, and far more durable.

The king of Prussia, who did not contract a shilling of debt, or lose a foot of territory in the last war, who is, indeed, weakened himself, but has, at the same time, destroyed his neighbours, defended by his great personal qualities and by the vastness of his reputation, terrible even in his repose, he sees no object which can alarm or dares to provoke him. He is secured by the circumstances above-mentioned from Russia. Sweden has much more to dread from him than he has to fear from her, on account of their vicinity in Pomerania. On the side of Poland, he must be perfectly secure; not only by the general inefficiency of that anarchichal constitution, but by its having a king, who has been supported by him in his election, and who will, in all likelihood, continue invariable in his interest: at least until he comes to a rupture with Russia; an event by no means to be expected in the present situation of affairs.

By having set the crown on the head of a native Pole, he has prevented the weight of that country from being thrown into the scale of any German potentate; a weight, which, however inconsiderable in itself, yet added to a government of more firmness and activity, could not fail to raise some of his neighbouring princes to a degree of importance, which it is not his interest that any of them should ever arrive at.

If Russia is not so sanguinely disposed to favour him, as she was for a moment, when directed by Peter III. she has neither the same animosity against him, nor the same capacity to hurt, which she had under the empress Elizabeth. Towards the close of last summer he concluded a defensive alliance with that court.

He has likewise taken such measures with the Turk, as must render him formidable to the only court, from which, by its power or dispositions, he could have any thing to dread. The Turk is better situated than Russia to pin down Austria, and more to be depended upon for a steady conduct in every circumstance of friendship or of enmity. He is not worse situated in any affairs which he may possibly have with Great Britain.

In explaining his situation we explain that of the Empress Queen of Hungary. It is now no longer the contention between the rival houses of Austria and Bourbon, whose aggrandisement or diminution have so long engaged, divided, and agitated Europe, which forms the great center of our political system, and occupies the hopes and fears of mankind. That quarrel seems to be entirely composed. That hereditary enmity has expired, and, as it were, suddenly. But the causes had been long efficaciously, though perhaps sometimes silently and obscurely, at work.

France and Austria found that they had rivals to dread more formidable to each of them, than they were to one another. The king of Prussia, with a force con-

conſidered relatively to this object, not a great deal inferior to that of France, and certainly better directed, preſſes more cloſely upon Auſtria. And France, having for ſome time aimed at greatneſs by new methods, and cultivated commerce and naval force, has met Great Britain in her way; with what an event the world has been a witneſs. In conſequence of this change the political world has loſt ſomething of its ſimplicity. It has divided into two ſyſtems, which have, in reality, but little neceſſary connection with one another; though, whenever troubles ſhall break out, there is no doubt but the powers which compoſe both, will be as effectually engaged, as if they had a cauſe in common.

As to France, who, next to Pruſſia, is the power whoſe activity may be ſuppoſed moſt likely to affect the peace, there is great reaſon to imagine that ſhe will continue for a long time a quiet neighbour. Her internal movements ſeem to be the beſt pledges of her external inoffenſiveneſs. The parliaments of France, which are the ſupreme courts of juſtice, and not the proper legiſlative authority, are, ſince the ſtates have been laid aſide, become the depoſitaries of the precious remains of liberty in that country. They have kept them concealed in their tribunals, (as Jehoiada did the heir of the Jewiſh kings in the temple) whilſt the principles of abſolute power were in their vigour, and too ſtrong to be reſiſted. But when the principle of monarchy firſt had declined a little from its ſtrength, they began gradually to diſcover their rights to the public, and to aſſert them with a vigour, that merits every praiſe, and is, indeed, beyond all example.

That officers of juſtice, actually appointed by the crown, ſhould be the faithful guardians of liberty, is ſomething ſingular. Such, however, they have, undoubtedly, been; nor have they been altogether deſtitute of proper powers for the diſcharge of this great truſt. Although the whole legiſlative as well as executive power is admitted by thoſe parliaments to reſide in the king, yet have they contrived a method of controlling the crown in the exerciſe of both theſe powers, and of interpoſing their authority in every matter of religion, of civil police, of revenue, and even, in ſome inſtances, in matters of ſtate. They do not claim to be adviſed with in the firſt digeſtion of any councils: but, as no royal edict or arret can have the force of a law, until it is regiſtered in parliament; when it comes to them for this purpoſe, though they cannot actually refuſe the regiſtery, if the royal authority be exerted in all its fullneſs, which is, when the king perſonally preſent in parliament holds what is called a *lict de juſtice*, yet they may ſuſpend it for ſome time, and in all caſes remonſtrate againſt the edict.

In ſome inſtances, perhaps, they have exceeded even theſe bounds; but, on conſidering the practice for many years paſt, this ſeems to be the ordinary extent of their authority. We muſt, however, confeſs, that it is not very eaſy to aſcertain the exact limits of a power, which appears to have been

been contracted or extended in the exercise, rather as circumstances were favourable or adverse to its exertion, than upon principles that were fixed, or rights that were ascertained. The great wars, in which France has been engaged, have obliged the administration frequently to levy great taxes on the subject. This brought on the necessity of frequent registers, and, of course, multiplied remonstrances on so popular a topic, where the parliaments seemed to oppose themselves to all the rage of power, and to stand as the only bulwark between the people and oppression.

The court, in order to induce them to a more easy registry of its money edicts, and to silence their loud and sometimes harsh remonstrances, has condescended to many compliances; by which the parliament has gained no little ground on that side. On the other hand, those remonstrances, and the effect of them, have acquired to the parliaments the deepest reverence amongst the people, and have secured to them all the weight, which popularity is capable of conferring in a government like that of France.

The court finding that it gained more by the authority and the respect which attended its acts, when sanctioned by the parliament, than it lost by the occasional opposition of that body, never took any effectual steps to prevent the growth of their authority. It appeared for a long time as no other than a political contrivance, by which a shadow of law or liberty was presented to the people, and they thought that, as they had set it up, they might take it down at their pleasure. But it is not easy to remove, upon a pretence of ancient right, a power which has gathered strength, without contracting any odium, by a long exercise of uncontrolled jurisdiction. This was visible enough in the affair of the archbishop of Paris, when he attempted the enforcement of the Bull *Unigenitus* against the Jansenists. The court would have silenced that dispute, or have compromised it. Both parties were, however, obstinate; and the court, being obliged to give way to the one or to the other, thought it expedient to close with the parliament. But the power of the parliaments was still more visible in the expulsion of the jesuits, that strong and politic, but envied and hated order, whom many believed to be countenanced, at the same time that they could not be protected, by the court.

CHAP. II.

Contests between the administration and parliaments of France. Money edicts. Remonstrances. Governors sent to register the edict by force. Arret against the duke of Fitz James by the parliament of Tholouse. Proceedings at Rouen and at Grenoble. Further remonstrances. Effect of these dissentions. Spain. Dispositions of France with regard to peace. Louisiana.

THE parliaments, having thus brought France into the appearance of a country governed solely by known laws, have shewn

that they poſſeſs a power capable of maintaining it in that condition, by reſiſting and puniſhing all thoſe, who, under the pretence of whatever orders or with whatever ſupport, infringe thoſe rights, which the parliaments claim as conſtitutional. A memorable inſtance of this power has been given by the parliaments of Tholouſe, Normandy, and Grenoble.

The conduct of theſe parliaments ſhews ſo evidently the ſpirit of the French judicature, and the character of the court and miniſtry, that we ſhall be readily excuſed for dwelling upon it for a few pages. The interior diſpoſitions of the ſovereign and people of France are always matters worthy of the attention of her neighbours.

On the 24th April 1763, the king iſſued an edict for the continuance of ſome taxes, which were to have ended with the war; and for impoſing ſome new ones, apparently of no very heavy nature; But other regulations were made of great importance, viz. for enabling the crown to redeem its debts at twenty years purchaſe of their *then produce*, excepting ſuch as were in the hands of the firſt proprietors, who had *paid the whole capital*, or their heirs; theſe latter, and thoſe only, were not to receive reimburſement below the capital.

Theſe edicts furniſhed the parliaments, who were ready enough to catch at much lighter occaſions of complaint, with matter for the heavieſt. They looked on theſe edicts, all of them as burthens on the people, ſome as violations of the public faith. Almoſt all the parliaments of France took fire at once. Without previous concert, but animated by a participation of the ſame ſpirit, they all reſolved on the moſt ſtrenuous oppoſition; and they determined to take this opportunity, not only of fruſtrating the edicts, but of ſetting up their authority at ſo high a point, as to prevent all abuſe of the ſame kind in future.

They refuſed to regiſter the edicts, and they prepared the ſtrongeſt remonſtrances. The remonſtrance of the parliament of Paris was pathetic, firm, full of energy, but temperate and guarded in the expreſſion. In that of the parliament of Rouen, the flame of liberty which had long lain ſmothered, burſt out into a full blaze. May 19th. 1763. Aug. 5th.

"We thought it our duty," ſaid that learned body, "to remonſtrate "to your majeſty, that the re- "giſtering that edict and declara- "tion is irreconcilable with your "glory, the good of the ſtate, "and the rights of mankind. "Whatſoever ſavours of con- "ſtraint, wounds the honour of "the throne. A manly and re- "ſpectful freedom has always "been the glory of every prince, "under whoſe reign the ſubjects "have made it their guide.

"Your people, ſire, are unhap- "py; all things proclaim this "ſad truth. Your courts of parlia- "ment, the only voice of the "nation, ceaſe not to tell it. "No, ſire, it is but too true, and "we cannot too often repeat it, "your people are miſerable.

"It is not from this day, that "we are to date the calamities, "that deſolate the ſeveral parts "your ſtate. Your parliaments "have found themſelves more

"than

" than once under a neceſſity to " lay before you the ſad deſcrip- " tion of them. Your majeſty " could not behold it, without " being affected. But what does " it ſignify to the felicity of " Frenchmen, that their ſovereign " ſhares, by reflection, in the " evils they really ſuffer, if the " mercenary ſpirit, which devours " them, is ſubſtituted to that, " which ought to proſcribe and " puniſh it?

" The termination of the war " ought to put an end to our mi- " ſery. Peace ſhould have intro- " duced in France the ſweets, " with which it is attended among " all other nations. The capital " of the kingdom was preparing " to celebrate the return thereof, " and with ſhouts of joy to dedi- " cate a monument deſigned to " eternize its ſenſibility, and the " memory of a beloved monarch. " But, inſtead of this, nothing " but ſighs of grief appeared.

" It is to promote the happineſs " of thoſe, who are placed under " your care, that you are inveſted " with the ſupreme authority. " Your ſubjects have a right to " your beneficence. They have, " therefore, a right to the eaſieſt " and leaſt burthenſome method " of contributing to the wants of " the ſtate. This right, which is " founded in nature, belongs to " every nation in the world, what- " ever may be its form of govern- " ment. It is principally the " right of the *Francs*, and, in a " more eſpecial manner that of " your province of Normandy. " The *Norman Charter* furniſhes, " on this head, the moſt reſpectable " monuments of our national im- " munities, and of the juſtice of " the kings, your auguſt prede- " ceſſors. We there find, *that no* " *tax can be laid on your ſubjects* " *of this province, unleſs it be* " *agreed to in the aſſembly of* " *the people, of the three eſtates.* " This charter ſubſiſts in its full " force; it makes part of your " people's rights, which you ſwore " to maintain before him, *by* " *whom kings reign.*"

In the periods of the moſt violent conteſts between right and prerogative in Great Britain, the voice of freedom was never raiſed to a higher pitch.

Even the *chambre des Aides* of the parliament of Paris, whoſe ſtile was ſomething more reſerved, cloſes one of its remonſtrances with this very remarkable requeſt, that, if the king doubts of the fidelity of their repreſentations, he would be pleaſed to hear the people themſelves by convoking the ſtates general of the kingdom.

From the ſouth they echoed without any diminution the voice of the northern parliaments. " As " often," ſays the parliament of Bourdeaux, " as we regiſter an " edict for laying a tax upon the " people, we, in conſequence of the " oath we have taken to the king, " bear witneſs, on the one hand, " to the people, that the tax is " juſt, and that we know of no " other leſs burthenſome, leſs il- " legal, leſs tedious way of raiſing " the neceſſary ſupplies; and we " bear witneſs to the king, on " the other hand, that his people, " ever filled with that zeal for his " ſervice, ever animated with that " patriotic ſpirit, which is ſo ne- " ceſſary to be kept up, are ſtill " in a condition to furniſh the " ſupplies demanded; theſe form

" the queſtions, which the con-
" ſcience of every member puts
" to him, who is thus placed be-
" tween the king and his people,
" under the eyes of a God, who
" is the terrible avenger of all
" falſehood and prevarication;
" by regiſtering a money edict,
" every member makes himſelf an-
" ſwerable to this conſcience for
" the truth of theſe affirmations,
" thus diſcharging the conſcience
" of the prince from any reproach
" of violence or oppreſſion, at the
" ſame time that he confirms the
" people in the eſſential princi-
" ples of love, gratitude, re-
" ſpect, and ſubmiſſion to their ſo-
" vereign."

Nothing can be more juſt, or conceived in a more noble manner. At Tholouſe, at Grenoble, at Beſançon, they purſued the ſame meaſures, and held the ſame language.

The court was alarmed at this oppoſition, but did not, however, immediately give up its point. It had recourſe to the direct power of the crown, which had, not long ſince, been, or was at leaſt deemed, irreſiſtible. They ſent down the governors of the ſeveral provinces with orders in the king's name to regiſter the edicts by force, and to cauſe them to be obeyed.

The duke of Fitz James was ſent to Tholouſe; Monſieur du Meſnil to Grenoble; and the duke of Harcourt to Rouen.

The parliament of Tholouſe, firm to their firſt reſolves, determined to give the governor an early impreſſion of their ſpirit. They ſtrictly enjoined the magiſtrates not to pay him any honours as governor of the province, until his commiſſion was firſt preſented to them, and until his character was by them recognized.

The duke, who is the grandſon of James II. of England, took his ſeat in parliament in quality of peer of France, and cauſed the edict to be regiſtered. The parliament, on their ſide, paſſed an arret, declaring the regiſter void, and forbidding all obedience to the edict. This arret, in his turn, Fitz James cauſed to be eraſed. Things were now come to extremities, guards were ſet upon the houſes of ſome of the principal magiſtrates, and the reſt were threatened with the ſame reſtraint. But theſe patriots, rather provoked than terrified with this rigour, and animated by the conflict, which now aroſe between law and military power, were far from remitting of the firmneſs of their proceedings. On the contrary, they roſe under the oppreſſion, and this act of violence drew from them further and more powerful exertions of the ſpirit of liberty, than had ever hitherto appeared in France.

Whilſt they were ſtruggling in this manner, the neighbouring parliament of Provence took fire; and, engaging in the cauſe of their brethren of Tholouſe, drew up remonſtrances to the king, in a ſtile glowing with reſentment and indignation, and in a ſpirit, which no words can adequately expreſs but their own. In theſe they repreſent
" the dreadful ſpectacle preſented
" to the people: deſolation en-
" tering the ſanctuary of juſtice,
" the liberty of the magiſtrates
" oppreſſed, their voices ſtifled,
" their ſafety violated, their for-
" tunes buried under the ruins of
" the

" the law, and the ſupreme right " of regiſtering acknowledged " in appearance to render them " accomplices or victims of a pro- " ject of deſtruction, and the in- " ſtruments of arbitrary power.

" And, more eſpecially the un- " heard of outrage, which, in the " capital of Languedoc, the mi- " niſters of the laws have expe- " rienced, and, in their perſons, " the body of the magiſtracy, the " whole nation, and the throne " itſelf, whoſe power and maje- " ſty are equally wounded by *ty-* " *rannical* acts, which exhibit to " aſtoniſhed France force armed " againſt the laws, of which it " ſhould be the ſupport; juſtice " in bondage; a ſubject erecting " himſelf into deſpotiſm; and all " this under the reign of a mo- " narch, the father of his people, " and the protector of mankind.

" That, if his parliament, in " the abyſs of their grief and af- " fliction, can yet employ them- " ſelves in other objects, it is an " effort of their zeal, ſupported " by the firmeſt confidence, that " the remembrance of ſuch an " event ſhall not be tranſmitted " to poſterity, without an exam- " ple capable of revenging the glo- " ry of the king, the public liber- " ty, and the laws."

The legal vengeance, which this remonſtrance threatened, the parliament of Tholouſe, as ſoon as it could aſſemble, began to execute. They came to a reſolution of apprehending their governor, acting with the authority, and under the immediate direction, of the crown, and proceeding againſt him as a criminal. An arret appeared, in which, after a bitter complaint, in the tenor of the preceding remonſtrance, it is declared, that the ſaid court has ordered, " that the ſaid duke " of Fitz James ſhall be bodily " taken and ſeized, whereſoever " he may be found in the king- " dom, and brought to the pri- " ſons of the court; and, in caſe " he cannot be apprehended, his ef- " tates and effects ſhall be ſeized, " or put under the adminiſtration " of a legal commiſſary, accord- " ing to the ordinances, &c."

Dec. 11th. 1763.

The proceedings of the duke of Harcourt in Normandy were altogether ſimilar to thoſe of the duke of Fitz James in Languedoc; the reſiſtance on the part of the parliament was equally ſpirited, and the arret to apprehend their governor ſo exactly the ſame, that it would be almoſt a repetition of the former proceedings to relate it.

Monſieur du Meſnil imitated the conduct of the other two governors, and ſhared the ſame fortune. The parliament of Grenoble did not in the leaſt fall ſhort of the brave example of their brethren in Rouen and Tholouſe.

The event of theſe violent diſputes, we may almoſt call them convulſions, in the ſtate of France, is not yet known to the compilers of this work with ſufficient clearneſs; nor, if our accounts were more ſatisfactory, would it be to our preſent purpoſe to relate it more at large, as we mean no more than to exhibit to the reader a faithful picture of the ſpirit, which has riſen to ſo high a degree in a country hitherto diſtinguiſhed by a paſſive acquieſcence in the will of its ſovereigns. From hence the reader may be enabled to form a judgment of the influence it may have upon the political conduct of that great nation.

Much more is to be expected from the event of these dissentions in France, than from the internal movement of the affairs in Russia. Whatever turn affairs may finally take in the latter country, we know it can scarcely lead to any constitutional alteration. The government may be more or less firm, but still it will be the same government. The natural powers of the country may be increased or diminished in their exertion, but this will produce no alteration in their principle. But what effect the growth of freedom, which is a capital revolution, may have in France, it is impossible distinctly to point out, though it cannot be indifferent.

In regard to her own real happiness, there is no doubt but such a change must tend greatly to augment it; but with regard to her external strength, and to the figure she may make in the political system, which is all that we here consider, it is extremely difficult to determine, whether the change will be to her advantage or detriment. Without liberty Great Britain would dwindle into a contemptible state; possessed of freedom France might, possibly, become less formidable.

As to Spain, that court, to all appearance, still remains, and is likely to remain, entirely subject to the influence of French councils. The personal character and dispositions of one, who stands high in that state, may possibly cause some irregularity in her proceedings; but, in the main, we may be fully assured, that, as long as France finds it her interest to continue punctual in her observance of the peace, Spain will scarcely take any step, by which it may be violated. Thus, much advantage may be derived from a conjunction, which in every other particular we may have so much solid reason to lament.

That France will, on her part, seriously endeavour to fulfil her engagements, we are satisfied; not only from the considerations already mentioned, but from another proof thereof very strong and unequivocal; the payment of so large a sum for the subsistence of her prisoners. The disbursement of money from one rival state to another does not look very like a preliminary step to a war between them.

But at the same time it is extremely difficult to determine, to which nation a continuance of the peace will prove the most advantageous; as this depends upon the natural powers of each nation, and those permanent resources, which will enable it to get the better of the accidental waste of strength, which it suffered in the war. Much, too, will depend on the care and capacity of the ministers in each nation to profit of these resources, and to turn the opportunities of peace to the most profitable account. To calculate the force of one of these principles, and to guess at the exertion of the other, requires more knowledge of men and facts, than can be acquired in our situation. It may not be an easy task in any.

CHAP.

CHAP. III.

Election of a king of Poland. Parties there. Conduct of the neighbouring powers. Poniatowſki recommended by Ruſſia and Pruſſia. Oppoſition to the foreign troops. Proteſt againſt the diet of election. Branitzky diveſted of his command. He and Radzivil defeated and driven out of Poland. Ambaſſadors of France and Auſtria retreat. Poniatowſki elected.

THE laſt year concluded with the preparations for the election of a king of Poland, in which ſo many powers were intereſted, and which was, almoſt, the ſingle point, that threatened any remarkable diſturbance to the public tranquillity. For though the election to the empire of Germany was then alſo depending, and that it was, in itſelf, a point of much greater importance, it was ſo effectually provided for, that no diſturbance was apprehended on that account. But, beſides the foreign intereſts concerned in the election of a king of Poland, ſo many ſtrong domeſtic factions ſubſiſted, with ſo many opportunities to act, that dangerous convulſions might well be feared both within and without that kingdom.

The great political diviſion was (as hath been obſerved in our work of laſt year) upon the preference of a native, (whom they uſually call a *Piaſt*,) or a foreigner. The reaſons, upon which theſe parties grounded their ſeveral opinions, have been already ſtated. Auſtria, France, and Spain, as connected with the houſe of Saxony, were of the latter party; the former was embraced by Muſcovy, Pruſſia, and Turky; two of theſe powers having previouſly fixed upon a perſon, whoſe pretenſions they determined to ſupport. An army of Ruſſians entered into Poland, and approached Warſaw. The Pruſſians appeared on one frontier, and a body of Turks aſſembled on the other.

The candidate, who had united theſe great potentates in his favour, was count Poniatowſki, of the illuſtrious family of that name, powerful by its dependencies and alliances. He was a man, by his perſonal qualifications, by his ſtriking virtues, and his various acquirements by ſtudy and travel, fitted to fill and dignify any ſtation. If the conſtitution of Poland would ever ſuffer it to emerge, it could not have better chances for becoming conſiderable under any prince. He was ſolemnly recommended, as well as effectually ſupported, by the above mentioned powers.

However, the friendſhip of the great powers, which this nobleman had acquired by his virtues, raiſed

raiſed him many enemies, and no ſmall oppoſition, within the kingdom. The great houſe of Radzivil, and count Branitzki, who was extremely powerful by his office of crown general, declared againſt him, and acted with great violence in this oppoſition. The one oppoſed him with all the force of a family, which could raiſe an army of its dependents; the other with the army of the republic, not, perhaps, more conſiderable, but of which his office had given him the entire command. As theſe forces were far from being contemptible, ſo their pretences were far from unpopular. They did not oppoſe the election of a native; but they contended that this election ought to be free; and they could not bear, that, under the name of preſerving the liberty of Poland, a foreign army ſhould openly, and almoſt avowedly, diſpoſe of its crown. This was their complaint; but it was not new, and never could produce any effect. That conſtitution, which they ſo ardently aſſerted, neceſſitated this very dependence on foreign powers, of which they ſo loudly complained.

On the other hand, count Poniatowſki, beſides his foreign connections, had a very large party within the kingdom. He was nearly related to the family of Czartorinſki, perhaps at this time the moſt powerful in Poland. The chief of that houſe might, himſelf, have formed a conſiderable party to raiſe him to the crown; but he gave way to the pretenſions of his kinſman, and ſupported him with all his intereſt.

The archbiſhop of Gneſna, primate of Poland, has, during the interregnum, the right of convoking the diets, and acts in that troubled interval with almoſt all the authority of a king. The Poles have, not unwiſely, veſted this authority rather in an eccleſiaſtical perſon, than in any of their great nobility, as his views on the crown muſt be taken away by his ſacerdotal character, and as the ſame character is leſs liable to lead him to any violent and tumultuary proceeding. This prelate, whoſe influence on the election muſt neceſſarily be very great, was entirely devoted to Poniatowſki. With theſe internal intereſts, ſupported by ſo ſtrong a foreign force, Poniatowſki offered himſelf as a candidate. His kinſman Czartorinſki was choſen marſhal or ſpeaker of the diet, and every thing proceeded very proſperouſly in his favour. Aug. 23d. 1764.

The other party, however, had not been idle either during the election of the nuncios or repreſentatives, who, in the name of the body of the nobility, were to chuſe a king, nor at the firſt aſſembling of the ſtates. In the former caſe great tumults were raiſed, but they did not ſubſiſt long. In the latter twenty-two ſenators entered a proteſt againſt the proceedings of the diet, the principal reaſons of which were grounded on the preſence and interference of the foreign troops. Forty-five nuncios ſigned an act of adhefion to this proteſt. May 7th. 1764.

Count Branitzki, who was at the head of thoſe proteſters, retired from the diet. But that aſſembly, ſoon

ſoon after its opening, revenged itſelf. An order was made for diveſting him of the poſt of crown general. Branitzki denied their power; drew together into one body a great part of that army, of which they had attempted to deprive him, but which ſtill faithfully adhered to him; augmented it by levies; and prepared to maintain himſelf by force; poſſeſſed, as it ſhould ſeem, by a ſpirit of deſpair and fury, having no power in the leaſt adequate to the height of his attempt. Prince Radzivil, on his part, was alſo up in arms, and with the ſame obſtinacy, and no greater ſtrength, ſtruggled againſt the election.

The ambaſſadors of France, Spain, and the Empire, finding their political intrigues of no more force towards obſtructing the election, than the hoſtile attempts of prince Radzivil and count Branitzki were likely to be,

June 7th. 1764. retired from the diet and left Poland, declaring that they had not been ſent to a party, but to the whole republic.

An action, at length, happened between prince Radzivil

July 3d. and the Ruſſian troops, wherein the Poles, having fought a long time, with their uſual irregular bravery, were, as uſual, defeated by the Ruſſians.

The ſpirit of Poland appeared ſtrongly in all the circumſtances of this action. The Princeſs Radzivil, but newly married, and a ſiſter of that prince, both of them young and beautiful, fought on horſeback with ſabres, and encouraged the ſoldiery both by their words and their example.

Branitzki was alſo defeated by a body of Ruſſians; and theſe two lords, the only very conſiderable perſons who oppoſed the Ruſſian nomination, were obliged to fly out of their country, and to take ſhelter in the Turkiſh dominions, where they particularly value themſelves on protecting the unfortunate; and theſe noble fugitives found refuge where Charles XII. had found it.

In the mean time the Poles proceeded with great tranquillity in ordering their own affairs, correcting whatever they judged amiſs in the preceding reign, and bringing back their government to its primitive inſtitution and firſt principles. This is their uſual method during an interregnum; and, in conſequence of their enquiries, they not only make ſeveral new laws, but ſettle their *pacta conventa*, which is a ſolemn compact, by which, in ſubſtance, the king engages himſelf, upon oath, to maintain the republic on the footing upon which it was delivered into his hands; and to take no ſteps, by which the freedom of the country may be endangered, and the elective nature of the crown changed to an hereditary ſucceſſion. There are other proviſions of detail, but this is the ſpirit of that compact.

The diet and the kingdom being freed, in the manner we have ſeen, from all thoſe, who were the declared oppoſers of Poniatowſki, the election was ſoon concluded in favour of that prince, with an unanimity unknown in the annals of Poland. His own great qualities, his popularity in his country, his powerful connections, the

the favour of the prince primate, and the countenance of the great potentates of the north, ſmoothed his way to the throne, which he aſcended with the moſt auſpicious appearances, and to the general ſatisfaction, on the 7th of September, by the name and titles of Staniſlaus Auguſtus, king of Poland, and Grand Duke of Lithuania.

Soon after his election, he received letters of congratulation from all the courts by whom his cauſe had been eſpouſed. The moſt remarkable is that from the king of Pruſſia, written with his majeſty's own hand. From the matter and the occaſion, as well as the character of the writer, it is extremely worthy of being inſerted at length. Nothing can be more glorious than a communication of ſuch ſentiments in the intercourſe between ſovereigns.

"Your majeſty muſt reflect that "as you enjoy a crown by election, "and not by deſcent, the world "will be more obſervant of your "majeſty's actions than of anyother "potentate in Europe; and it is "but reaſonable. The latter being "the mere effect of conſanguinity, "no more is looked for (tho' much "more is to be wiſhed) from him, "than what men are endowed with "in common; but from a man exalted, by the voice of his equals, "from a ſubject to a king, from a "man voluntarily elected to reign "over thoſe by whom he was choſen, every thing is expected that "can poſſibly deſerve and adorn a "crown. Gratitude to his people is the firſt great duty of ſuch "a monarch, for to them alone, "(under providence) he is indebted "that he is one. A king, who is ſo "by birth, if he acts derogatory to "his ſtation, is a ſatire only on "himſelf; but an elected one, who "behaves inconſiſtent with his dignity, reflects diſhonour alſo on "his ſubjects. Your majeſty, I am "ſure, will pardon this warmth. It "is the effuſion of the ſincereſt regard. The amiable part of the "picture is not ſo much a leſſon of "what you ought to be, as a prophecy of what your majeſty will "be."

CHAP. IV.

Diſturbance in Ruſſia. Prince Ivan. He is viſited by the Empreſs. A guard is ſet upon him. Scheme of Mirowitz. Is put on guard in the caſtle of Schluſſelburgh. Seizes the governor. Attacks the prince's guards. Prince Ivan murdered. Mirowitz ſurrenders. Is executed.

WHILST the empreſs of Ruſſia was employed abroad in diſpoſing of crowns, at home her throne ſeemed to be tottering under her; and that vaſt power, which extended to the remoteſt parts of Aſia, which awed all Europe, and abſolutely governed ſo many of its neighbours, was not ſecure of its own duration for a moment. Every breath of a conſpiracy ſeemed to ſhake it; and ſuch was the critical ſtate of that empire, that the deſigns of the obſcureſt perſon in it were not without danger.

In

In the courſe of this ſummer, an event of this nature happened in Ruſſia, which is deſerving of a place in hiſtory from the extraordinary circumſtances which attended it; though ſo extremely myſterious and unaccountable in many particulars, that we deſpair of affording any clear ſatisfaction to the reader concerning them. They ſhall be related according to the materials we poſſeſs.

When her preſent imperial majeſty came to the throne of Ruſſia in ſo extraordinary a manner, it was very neceſſary that ſhe ſhould take every ſtep to ſecure her ſafety, and carefully reconnoitre every avenue by which ſhe might poſſibly be attacked. In this ſearch an opening appeared, through which a way might be eaſily made to new revolutions.

The reader, who is at all converſant in the Ruſſian hiſtory, will readily recollect, that Ivan, or John, ſon of Anthony Prince of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle, and the Princeſs Anne of Mecklenburgh, ſucceeded to the empire of Ruſſia on the death of the empreſs Anne Iwanowna in 1739. This prince, proclaimed and depoſed in his cradle, too young to be ſenſible of the great revolution of which he was the object, remained in confinement and obſcurity from that period. Moſt people were even ignorant whether he was alive or dead. But the late empreſs, with a magnanimity not common in her ſituation or her country, whilſt ſhe removed him from the eyes and attention of the people, permitted to live a perſon who had worn her crown.

This perſon, however, was of too much importance to be entirely neglected by the preſent empreſs. The very firſt object, which occurred to her amidſt the cares of her new and yet unſettled government, was to examine into the ſtate and qualifications of this royal priſoner, whoſe ſingular fate ſhe deplored, and whoſe misfortunes ſhe was reſolved as far as poſſible to alleviate; in this particular far exceeding the generoſity of her predeceſſor, who thought enough had been done in permitting him to live. She even condeſcended perſonally to viſit this unfortunate prince, in order to form a judgment of his underſtanding and talents. To her great ſurpriſe ſhe found him to the laſt degree deficient in both. She obſerved in him a total privation of ſenſe and reaſon, with a defect in his utterance, that, even had he any thing rational to utter, would have rendered him entirely unintelligible.

The empreſs, the characteriſtic of whoſe nature is benevolence and compaſſion, who had lamented with ſo many tears a bad huſband, whom ſhe was obliged to depoſe, was now to the laſt degree affected by the marks of incapacity and weakneſs which appeared in a competitor to her crown. Conſoling herſelf, however, as well as ſhe was able, ſhe gave directions that he ſhould be treated with great care and tenderneſs, though his condition rendered him incapable of perceiving, and much more of acknowledging thoſe ſtriking marks of her humanity. Extending her tenderneſs yet further, that in his unfortunate circumſtances he ſhould not be moleſted, ſhe ordered a guard to be placed over his perſon, under the command of two truſty officers, and with ſtrict injunctions, that none ſhould

ſhould approach him. Under this guard he remained in the caſtle or fortreſs of Schluſſelburgh, not far from Peterſburgh.

All perſons, however, were not ſo thoroughly convinced of the incapacity of this prince. He was now arrived at the age of twenty-four years, and he might evidently be made an inſtrument, or at leaſt a pretence, for exciting dangerous commotions. His plauſible title to the crown, of which he had been formerly in poſſeſſion, his long ſufferings without any other guilt than that poſſeſſion and that title, his youth, and even the obſcurity which attended his life, (and which, therefore, gave latitude for conjecture and invention) formed very proper materials for working on the minds of the populace.

Actuated by ſuch notions, a perſon of no conſideration but from the boldneſs of his attempts, one Mirowitz, a ſecond lieutenant in the regiment of Smolenſko, formed a deſign of ſetting this prince at liberty, and of putting him at the head of a party. In purſuance of this deſign he tampered with ſome of the ſoldiers of the garriſon of Schluſſelburgh, whom he gained over to his project. He then deſired to be put on guard, though out of his turn; probably becauſe his regular turn did not coincide with the time in which his aſſociates were to be on guard.

This extraordinary ſtep ſeems not to have excited any ſuſpicions in a governor, who was intruſted with ſo very important and critical a charge. Mirowitz obtained his

July 15th. 1764. requeſt; and every thing being prepared for the attempt, at two in the morning he ſuddenly called up the main guard, formed it into a line, and ordered the ſoldiers to load with ball. Berenikoff, governor of the fortreſs, alarmed with the noiſe cauſed by theſe motions, ran out of his apartment to enquire into the reaſon of this diſturbance. He was anſwered by a blow with the butt end of a muſket on his head, which laid him on the ground.

Mirowitz, having wounded and ſecured the governor, loſt no time to improve his advantage. He advanced furiouſly at the head of his troop, and attacked the handful of ſoldiers who guarded prince Ivan. He was received with ſpirit by the guard, who quickly repulſed him. Theſe conſpirators, at the ſame time the moſt deſperate and the moſt timid of mankind, were obliged to retire, though they had not a ſingle man killed, or even wounded in the ſlighteſt manner.

Thus diſheartened without any loſs, they did not, however, deſiſt from their enterprize. But not daring to charge again with muſquetry, Mirowitz ordered a piece of cannon to be brought from the ramparts, and they prepared to batter the place.

The commanders of the guard which was ſet on the prince, on ſeeing this formidable preparative, thought it expedient to take counſel together. And firſt, they held it impoſſible to reſiſt ſuch a ſuperior force, as that which they had lately beaten off. Then they took into conſideration the dreadful conſequences, which muſt inevitably enſue to the public peace and the ſafety of the empire, if their priſoner ſhould be enlarged; and, laſtly, they ſet before their eyes the puniſhment, that would be inflicted

inflicted on them by the laws, in case their charge should be taken from them, though against their will, and after all possible resistance.

On this consultation they came to the dreadful resolution of assassinating the unfortunate prince, over whose life they were to watch, unterrified with the dangers, which manifestly waited this horrid act, directly hanging over them from a desperate force, which, (to give any colour to their proceeding) they must have concluded irresistible.

Those, who pretend to be particular in the detail of this dark transaction, relate, that prince Ivan was in his bed and asleep, when the captain of the guard entered his chamber. The first blow was but slight, and served only to rouze him from his sleep. Attacked in this sudden manner, and wholly unprepared for defence, he, notwithstanding, made a vigorous struggle for his life, and even broke the sword of the assassin; but, another coming in to the assistance of the former, they soon overpowered him, and laid this unfortunate prince dead at their feet.

When they had perpetrated this fact, they took the dead body, and exposed it, reeking with blood, and pierced with ten stabs, to the eyes of the conspirators, with these words; "There is your em-"peror, let him now head you."

This sight, which might naturally be expected to augment the fury, at the same time that it compleated the despair, of the assailants, produced quite a contrary effect. Mirowitz, who had the spirit to contrive and execute so daring a project, seemed to lose all sense and courage in a moment. He did not urge forward to revenge either himself, or the prince whose death he brought on, whilst he sought his liberty, and whose body lay before him mangled in that manner, which has in many instances served to inflame, but never before to quiet the minds of the mutinous and discontented. Neither did he or his associates endeavour to save themselves by flight, but all of them, with the utmost calmness, surrendered themselves captives to the governor, who was at this very time their prisoner.

It cannot be expected, that the authors of this narrative should be able to remove all the difficulties, which, whatever system may be followed to solve them, naturally must arise in the mind of the readers of this melancholy and astonishing transaction.

The empress, who was extremely affected at the news of so tragical an event, omitted no means to clear herself from all suspicion of having the least share in it. It is true, that she profited in this instance by the defeated machinations of her enemies. But there is no reason from any part of her conduct to conclude, that the Russian court could have connived at, much less have encouraged, an attempt of that nature. The trial of the conspirators was remitted to the senate; they condemned Mirowitz to death, and he was publicly executed in pursuance of his sentence. Sep. 26th. The inferior actors in this design did not suffer death, but were subjected to other punishments perhaps not less severe. The officers, who put the prince

to death, were, in consideration of their good intentions to the quiet of the state, amply rewarded for their fidelity. A manifesto appeared by authority, giving an account of the whole procedure. It was filled with expressions of humanity and piety, which sort of language seems to be the office stile of the court of Petersburgh.

CHAP. V.

Parliament meets. State of parties. Wilkes's affair. Message to the house. Both houses address. North Briton censured and burnt by the hands of the common hangman. Question of privilege; debates thereupon. Wilkes retires to France. He is expelled.

HAving taken notice of the internal state of the other great powers of Europe, it is now time to say something of our own country. The three factions, which we described in the close of our history of last year, still continued; though in their visible operations they seemed reduced to two only; those who supported the administration as it was then settled, and those who opposed it.

During the summer, the light troops of party, the pamphleteers and news writers, kept skirmishing with great alacrity, in verse and in prose. The libellous spirit, which animated those productions, was raised to the highest pitch of audacity and insolence. Character no longer depended upon the tenor of a man's life and actions; it was intirely determined by the party he had taken. Neither innocence nor dignity were a protection.

The peace, to which so trifling an opposition had been made in parliament, either in debate or division, was the principal topic. It was agitated with great heat by all; but by one writer with such remarkable indecency and boldness, that the secretaries of state thought themselves obliged, after a long forbearance, in vindication of injuries offered to the throne itself, to take up the author. The process for this purpose was a loose office form, which had been constantly practised from the revolution, and never in any instance censured during that period. But the present times were more critical. As a cry had been raised, that the administration was conducted upon arbitrary principles, a severe scrutiny was made into all the actions of the ministry, with a view of pursuing them to extremity, if they were found to deviate from the exact principles of the most rigid law.

The warrant used, on this occasion, was *general*; to take up the authors, printers, and publishers of a seditious and treasonable paper called the North Briton, N° 45, together with their papers, without (otherwise than by the designation of the crime) specially naming or describing the criminals. This loose method of process was still more loosely executed, and upon a much greater number of persons, and of a quality much lower, than was any way requisite

April 30th. 1763.

ſite for the purpoſes of prevention or puniſhment. But this procedure had been uſual; and, the treatment of ſuch perſons being always mild and indulgent, and their danger from proſecution great, happy to eſcape, they never thought of revenge, and, therefore, had not hitherto very critically ſcrutinized the legality of the proceſs, by which they were apprehended.

The proceeding too againſt the perſon principally concerned, (Mr. Wilkes,) was attended with ſome circumſtances of rigour, which were not called for by the occaſion; *cloſe* impriſonment was directed, and the *uſe of pen, ink and paper* forbidden. But the uſual unexamined courſe of the ſecretaries office, and the zeal and indignation of the noble perſons, who filled it, againſt ſo great an offence, may well excuſe that irregularity in the proceeding. When people began to cool, the fault appeared, almoſt to all, to be nothing worſe than an irregularity; at that time it was very differently conſidered. Even the committal to the tower, which was choſen from reſpect to the perſon of a member of parliament, was employed to excite terror, and to ſwell the popular alarm.

May 6th. Mr. Wilkes, on bringing his *Habeas corpus*, was releaſed, without bail, by the court of common pleas. The judges of that court were unanimouſly of opinion, that privilege of parliament extended to the caſe, for which he was committed.

Beyond all meaſure was the popular party elated by this ſucceſs. Mobs attended the priſoner with praiſes and acclamations wherever he went. With very moderate ſufferings he was conſidered as the martyr of liberty; and his diſcharge, on account of privilege, was ſuppoſed a point gained to the freedom of every individual.

This popular heat was kept alive with great art and induſtry. The perſons who were taken up by the warrants, which we have juſt mentioned, upon various complaints, ſought redreſs at law, and obtained (ſuch was the temper, which, by being diffuſed amongſt the people, was thought to have influenced the juries) damages greatly beyond their real ſufferings, and, poſſibly, beyond their moſt ſanguine expectations.

Theſe actions were proſecuted in ſuch a manner, that the public attention to them was kept continually alive. It ſeemed, as if freedom had every day a new conflict to undergo, and obtained every day a new victory. Adminiſtration, on the other hand, oppoſed them by all the advantages, which the law allows to thoſe who act on the defenſive; and ſometimes by the interpoſal of privilege kept this matter ſtill longer in agitation; inſomuch, that, until the meeting of parliament, ſcarcely any thing elſe could enter into the thoughts or converſation of the people. On this point, therefore, it was expected the great trial of ſtrength and ſkill in the enſuing ſeſſion would be made. Nov. 15th.

Neither party ſeemed willing to decline this combat. One prepared with a complaint of the abuſe of the liberty of the preſs, and of the privilege of parliament; the other of the violation of that liberty and that privilege, and the

blow aimed at the freedom of every ſubject by the proceſs of the ſecretary's office.

In this conteſt adminiſtration had the advantage of the firſt blow. In the ſpeech from the throne it was contrived, that mention ſhould be made of the peace, in order to draw from parliament a reiterated approbation to that meaſure; and to ſignalize the triumph of the miniſtry upon that very point, on which the oppoſition had been moſt ſucceſsful during the adjournment of the two houſes. There was no doubt of their ſucceſs. The parliament could not refuſe to juſtify its own act; and this would, not indeed neceſſarily, but, naturally enough lead them to the cenſure of thoſe writings, which had involved men of all parties, and the whole legiſlature, in one accuſation.

It was in the ſame ſpirit they reſolved on a ſtroke againſt that privilege, on which their proſecution had been eluded during the ſummer, in order to defeat the adverſary in all his ſtrongholds. Poſſibly, ſome friends of the miniſtry might alſo think by this means to caſt a ſort of oblique reflection on the reſpetable perſon, whoſe judgement on this point had given their enemies ſo great an advantage over them.

As their ſucceſs in theſe matters muſt give the miniſtry the moſt ſignal advantage, and impreſs the public with the higheſt ideas of their power and ſtability, ſo the attempt was bold, and not unattended with difficulties. To perſuade parliament to cenſure a piece actually under legal examination; to proceed againſt their member, who was under a criminal proſecution; or to limit that privilege of parliament, which ſo lately was confirmed, not by their own votes, but by the ſtrict rules of a court of juſtice, was an attempt of ſome ſpirit.

On the other hand, the party in oppoſition, beſides the benefit which they derived from theſe circumſtances, whilſt they acted on the defenſive, had ſeveral advantages from them, if they choſe to proceed offenſively. They had beſides one capital charge of illegality, which they might, with great plauſibility, make upon the ſecretaries warrants.

But however violently theſe affairs were agitated before the meeting of parliament, when they came to be examined in the houſe, the fervour of the party ſeemed greatly to decline. The ſpeech from the throne ſpoke as ſtrongly as poſſible of the attempts which had been made to divide the people. Both houſes made as full a return as could be wiſhed upon this article, as well as upon the peace, which they connected with it. But, before theſe addreſſes could be formed, a complaint was laid before the commons, according to the uſual courſe, where any criminal proceſs has been iſſued againſt a member, in a meſſage from government, informing them of the ſuppoſed offence of Mr. Wilkes, and of the proceeding againſt him. The exceptionable paper was then laid before the houſe. Nov. 15th.

A very long and warm debate enſued. But the ſpirit, which ſeemed to animate the argument, had not a proportionable influence on

on the opinion of the members; the diviſion againſt the queſtion was inconſiderable; though the reſolution was couched in very ſtrong terms, and could not fail of lying heavy upon all the oppoſition, which might be raiſed to the ſubſequent proſecution of the perſon of the offender. It even affected the guard of privilege, which was propoſed to be taken from the offence itſelf.

The reſolution was, "that the Nov. 15th. "paper, intituled, the "North Briton, N° 45, "is a falſe, ſcandalous, "and ſeditious libel, containing "expreſſions of the moſt unexam- "pled inſolence and contumely "towards his majeſty, the groſſeſt "aſperſions upon both houſes of "parliament, and the moſt auda- "cious defiance of the authority "of the whole legiſlature, and "moſt manifeſtly tending to ali- "enate the affections of the peo- "ple from his majeſty, to with- "draw them from their obedience "to the laws of the realm, and to "excite them to traiterous in- "ſurrections."

Then they reſolved, by a majority equally clear, that the paper ſhould be burnt by the hands of the common hangman; and, on a conference, the lords having agreed to the reſolution on the libel, concurred in the ſentence upon it.

Nov. 26th. They afterwards joined in an addreſs, expreſſing their indignation for the contumely, with which his majeſty was treated in that libel, and for the outrage, which had been offered to every branch of the legiſlature.

Adminiſtration continued to ſtrike this matter whilſt it was warm, and capable of being beat into the from they deſired. Having ſucceeded in the addreſs and the reſolution, they proceeded without delay to their next meaſure, which was much more difficult, as well as important, the privilege.

On this, indeed, as on a much better ground, oppoſition made a vigorous ſtand in both houſes. For the queſtion being put, Nov. 23d. *that privilege of parliament does not extend to the caſe of writing and publiſhing ſeditious libels, nor ought to be allowed to obſtruct the ordinary courſe of the laws, in the ſpeedy and effectual proſecution of ſo heinous and dangerous an offence*, they ſaid, that the propoſition itſelf was made without any ſufficient reaſon, and that the doctrine, by which it was ſupported, was new, dangerous and unwarrantable, viz. "that the perſonal privilege of "both houſes of parliament has ne- "ver held, and ought not to hold "in the cauſe of any criminal proſe- "cution whatſoever;" by which all the records of parliament, all hiſtory, all the authorities of the graveſt and ſobereſt judges are intirely reſcinded; and the fundamental principles of the conſtitution, with regard to the independence of parliament, torn up and buried under its moſt eſtabliſhed rights.

That the very queſtion itſelf, from the letter and ſpirit of it, contradicts this aſſertion; for, whilſt it only narrows privilege in criminal matters, it eſtabliſhes the principle.

They maintained ſtrenuouſly, that, by the reaſon of the thing, by many authorities in law, by the late determination of the court of common pleas, and by

two plain reſolutions of the houſe of peers (ſo far as the queſtion concerned their particular privilege) that the privilege of parliament does extend to all caſes whatſoever, except treaſon, felony, and thoſe offences, in which *ſureties of the peace* may be demanded. If privilege will not hold throughout in the caſe of a libel, it is becauſe it is ſuch an offence. But were ever ſureties of the peace demanded in caſe of a libel? Libels are breaches of the peace only by inference, and by conſtruction, and not actually and in their own nature. They are not included in any definition given of a breach of the peace in any writer of approved authority; nor is the caſe of a libel by any ſuch writers enumerated amongſt the breaches of peace. On the contrary, it is always deſcribed as an act *tending to excite, provoke, or produce* breaches of the peace, and not as that offence itſelf; and though a ſecretary of ſtate may be pleaſed to add the enflaming epithets of treaſonable, traiterous, or ſeditious, to a particular paper, yet no words are ſtrong enough to alter the nature of things.

They expatiated further on the method of relaxing the rule of privilege caſe by caſe, as of the greateſt inconvenience, by rendering the rule itſelf precarious and uncertain; in conſequence of which the judges will neither know how to decide with certainty, nor the ſubject to proceed with ſafety, in this perilous buſineſs.

Laſtly, they anſwered to the ſuppoſed inconvenience, that would attend this preſervation of privilege in the caſe now before them, by ſaying, that it would equally hold in all other conſtructive breaches of the peace, and that this argument, therefore, proves too much. But the beſt anſwer, (becauſe it removes all pretence of grievance,) is this; that the two houſes, upon complaint made, have the power (which they will exert in favour of juſtice) to deliver up the offender to proſecution. For it is a diſhonourable and an undeſerved imputation upon them, to ſuppoſe, even in argument, that they would nouriſh an impious criminal in their boſoms, againſt the call of offended juſtice, and the demand of their country.

Such were ſome of the arguments, which, with great vehemence, and no ſmall appearance of reaſon, were urged againſt the reſolution. It was ſupported by expatiating on the dangerous nature of the offence of a libel, followed not only with conſequences injurious to the peace of individuals, but pregnant in many caſes with danger to the ſafety, and, perhaps, to the being of the commonwealth; that, therefore, a libel which, in ſome caſes, might poſſibly be conſidered as an affair of no great magnitude, might alſo, according to its object, be a crime of a much higher order, not only than many of thoſe ſlight offences, for which ſureties of the peace are demanded, but greater than ſeveral ſpecies of felony, (all of which are allowed to be out of privilege) and bordering on treaſon itſelf.

The diſtinction, ſaid they, of actual and conſtructive breaches of the peace is trifling and ſophiſtical. The queſtion is concerning the nature and weight of the offence, and not of the name by which it called. That it would,

would, in such a case, be ridiculous to allow a seditious libeller advantages, which are denied to an ordinary breaker of the peace; when sedition is a crime of so much greater guilt and importance than a menacing gesture, or even an actual assault. That the privilege of parliament is a privilege of a civil nature, instituted to preserve the member from being distracted in his attention to the business of the nation by litigations concerning his private property, but by no means to prove a protection for crimes.

If, said they, this distinction of breaches of the peace were to hold, members of parliament might not only libel public and private persons with impunity, but might, with the same impunity, commit many other misdemeanours and offences of the grossest nature, and the most destructive to morality and order; because they, as well as libels, are breaches of the peace, but by construction, and in their consequence. If privilege were of this nature, the freedom of the members would be the slavery of the subject, and the danger of the state.

Upon what had been asserted on the other side, "that no incove-"nience could arise by the preser-"vation of this privilege, because "on application to that house of "parliament of which the delin-"quent was a member, he would "certainly be given up to justice," they observed, that this remedy might come too late; for, as the offender could not be arrested and held to bail, he might easily escape by the length of time necessary to be taken in that mode of process, and by the public nature of the complaint.

Besides, this argument, if at all admitted, will prove too much; the same reasoning might hold as well in treason, felony, and actual breaches of the peace. No doubt, either house of parliament would, on complaint, deliver up their members charged with such offences; yet it is allowed, that the privilege neither does nor ought to cover them. And no one criminal matter seems more within the reason of privilege than another.

It is the argument in favour of criminal privilege that proves too much. The assertion, that this argument against it does so too, is not grounded; for a good deal is intended to be proved. Those, who are for declaring the law of privilege not to extend to the case of libels, do not mean to suppose all these other heinous offences of the same nature, upon which their declaration is silent, to be, therefore, within privilege. They deny it to exist in the case before them; that is all their present business; but they do neither thereby affirm, or imply it, in any other.

Privilege of parliament being defined, solely by the discretion of either house for itself, is a matter of the most delicate nature; it is, therefore, to be used with the utmost moderation. If it should be so exercised, as to appear incompatible with the public peace or order, or even, perhaps, with the safety and quiet of individuals, the people might come to think that they lived under a constitution, injudiciously, and even absurdly framed, in which the personal liberty of the representatives of a

free people might become inconſiſtent with their own. That the houſe, inſtead of enlarging its immunities beyond their original intention and ſpirit, inſtead of claiming an invidious, and no very honourable privilege, ought to ſtand forward in giving a noble example of its moderation and its regard to juſtice. By agreeing to the reſolution, it would give this practical leſſon, and, at the ſame time, this comfortable ſecurity to the people, that no ſituation was a ſanctuary for thoſe, who preſumed to violate the law in any of its parts.

Nov. 24th. On ſome ſuch reaſons, the commons, though not without a ſtrenuous oppoſition, agreed to the reſolution; and in a conference this reſolution was communicated to the other houſe. They alſo concurred in it. The reſiſtance in this houſe was ſtill more conſiderable. A proteſt againſt it was ſigned by ſeventeen lords.

Nov. 29th.

The North Briton having been declared a ſeditious libel by the concurring votes of both houſes, and as ſuch burnt by the common hangman, the commons proceeded in the complaint againſt Mr. W. as the author of it. This proſecution, which was begun and puſhed forward with great earneſtneſs, was, however, ſome time reſpited by an accident, which, though unfortunate to Mr. Wilkes, was advantageous to the party; for it ſtill kept the popular ſpirit and hopes alive, which, probably, would have expired under an early and final deciſion of the houſe againſt him; the people without doors would have cooled, when they found him condemned by that body, of which he was a member, and diſowned by that privilege to which he had fled for refuge.

Dec. 1ſt.

In the heat of thoſe diſputes, in conſequence of which ſome words aroſe, a duel was fought between Mr. W. and a gentleman of conſideration; one of thoſe many whom Mr. W. had, perhaps with little malice but much wantonneſs, attacked in thoſe papers, which now drew on him, at once, a legal proſecution, a parliamentary complaint, and a perſonal combat.

In this duel, Mr. W. was wounded; and the ſtate of his health being repreſented to the houſe, the hearing on the charge againſt him was adjourned from time to time. During theſe adjournments, Mr. W. obſerving the deciſion of all the preliminary queſtions relative to his caſe, the vigour with which adminiſtration urged the proſecution, and the coldneſs with which every thing that was perſonal to him in theſe diſputes was treated almoſt by the whole party, he thought it expedient to remove into France, until a change in adminiſtration might produce diſpoſitions more favourable to him.

Dec. 24th.

The laſt adjourned day of the complaint being arrived, the houſe, certified that he had refuſed to admit ſurgeons ſent by their authority to examine into the ſtate of his wound, and his retreat into France rather indicating a diſtruſt of his cauſe, than any thing amiſs in his conſtitution, proceeded regularly to hear evidence in ſupport of the charge againſt him.

Jan. 19th. 1764.

They

They considered the letter and the apology he sent for his non-appearance, together with the testimony of the French surgeons, which accompanied it, as quite nugatory. If his wound had been in the condition in which he represented it, a journey to Paris was a strange measure; and the consequences arose from his own voluntary act.

The evidence appearing satisfactory as to the author, and the house having previously passed judgment on the piece, the question of expelling Mr. Wilkes was carried without difficulty; the division in his favour being inconsiderable.

In this manner the party abandoned the most zealous, the most resolute, and one of the most useful of their champions. They thought it necessary to purchase the credit of moderation even by this sacrifice. They were willing to shew, that their opposition was grounded upon principle, not upon discontent; and that the administration, who accused them so freely of a factious procedure, could not, when the trial came, shew a greater desire to preserve the dignity of the throne from every species of affront. They hoped their conduct in that respect would appear even more dutiful than that of the ministry itself; since the ministry, in the prosecution of an affront to the throne, avenged their own private injuries; whilst the opposition, in respect to injured majesty, abandoned their best and most sanguine friends.

To fill the measure of the degradation of this late idol of the populace, a book, which he had privately printed and dispersed amongst his friends, was presented by one of the secretaries of state to the house of lords. This book, full of indecent and profane ribaldry, reflected on the character of a right reverend member of that house, whose vast extent of erudition and genius adds dignity and lustre to his high station. The peers proceeded against the author for a breach of privilege, while he was indicted in the courts below for blasphemy. And now expelled by one house; under the censure of the other; under a double prosecution for libel and for blasphemy; he began to be abandoned by many of his warmest friends. Even the populace, though they did not dislish faction, could not digest prophaneness; they could forgive party malice, but were shocked at offences against decency and sober morals. Mr. W. was soon run to an outlawry for not appearing to the indictments against him; and the suits, which he had carried on against the secretaries of state, of course fell to the ground.

Jan. 19th.

Nov. 1st.

This compleated the ruin of that unfortunate gentleman, who engaged for some time so great a part of the public attention, and whose wit, spirit, and good humour, if not carried to such unwarrantable excesses, merited, and would, probably, have met with a very different fortune.

CHAP.

CHAP. VI.

Queſtion of general warrants. Debates thereupon. Adminiſtration hard puſhed. Queſtion adjourned. State of the national ſupplies. Scheme of ways and means criticiſed. Obſervations on that controverſy.

HITHERTO the triumph of adminiſtration was compleat. Sentence had been paſſed on the cauſe, and on the perſon of a principal adverſary. They had even deprived all perſons for the future of that privilege, which had been lately thought the ſtronghold of writers for the oppoſition. But their turn was now come to be attacked themſelves upon a point, on which they were ſomewhat ſore, and not extremely ſtrong.

On moſt of the preceding queſtions, there was, at the bottom, but little difference between any of the parties; an offence, which comprehended, at once, an attack upon the peace; an indignity to the crown; and a cenſure of the parliament; was, in a manner, a common cauſe. But, on the queſtion of the warrants uſed in the proſecution of this offence ſo unanimouſly condemned, the caſe was very different. The oppoſition had here no meaſures to keep. They had gone too far in repreſenting theſe warrants as highly dangerous to liberty, to be able to recede with the leaſt degree of decency. They had raiſed an alarm, and it was neceſſary that they ſhould have the merit of quieting it by the application of ſome remedy adequate to the violence of the diſeaſe; or the advantage of keeping it up by the eclat of the attempts they ſhould make, and the zeal for liberty they ſhould manifeſt on the occaſion. Neither of theſe methods could fail of anſwering their purpoſes.

There was alſo a favourable opportunity for thoſe parties, which ſecretly divided the body that had hitherto ſupported government, to play their game. The royal majeſty was in no wiſe concerned in this queſtion; no meaſure purſued by any party was cenſured; no general plan of government was affected; the law only was to be declared, and the minds of the ſubject made eaſy upon a practice, the ſtrict legality of which had not been defended by the warmeſt advocates for the adminiſtration. Nothing even of a perſonal cenſure was intended. Theſe appearances were plauſible, and many ſober perſons were ſeriouſly alarmed, to obſerve a practice prevalent in a great office contrary to what they conſidered as the cleareſt principles of law, and inconſiſtent with the manner of governing in a free country. The long and ſilent continuance of this practice, inſtead of excuſing, only added to the danger of it.

Whatever the motives, that influenced the conduct and opinions of men on this point, might be, there was no doubt that, without aiming at the perſons, a conſiderable

able ſtroke was aimed at the miniſterial character and conſideration of thoſe in high ſtations. Many of thoſe, therefore, who reliſhed neither the adminiſtration, as it was then formed, nor the oppoſition, were of opinion, that the one might be humbled, and yet the other not materially exalted, by their appearing for a reſolution condemning the general warrants.

Accordingly a reſolution was propoſed to the following effect.

Feb. 14th. "That a general warrant for apprehending and ſeizing the authors, printers, and publiſhers of a ſeditious libel, together with their papers, is not warranted by law."

This propoſition drew on a very long and very warm debate. Thoſe, who oppoſed it, did not ground their oppoſition on an affirmance of the legality of the warrants, (for, in general, they either admitted their illegality, or put that matter out of the queſtion) but on the impropriety of the method propoſed for ſettling the law of warrants. They argued that the houſe of commons, by itſelf, cannot declare law legiſlatively, becauſe it is only a part and not the whole of the legiſlature; nor judicially, becauſe it is neither the whole nor a part of any court of judicature.

That no abuſe of warrants was, in itſelf, ſo dangerous an illegality, as an attempt to deſtroy the bounds, which the wiſdom of the conſtitution has aſſigned to the diſtinct powers which compoſe it; that this method could be productive of nothing but confuſion and injuſtice; of confuſion, as the inferior acting magiſtrate could never have a certain rule for his conduct, nor a certain judicature, by which it was to be tried; for, whilſt he looked for the rule of legality only in acts of parliament, and in the common law, and endeavoured thence to form a rule for his conduct, there might, for aught he knew, be another in the journals of the houſe of commons. An action of his, for which he might ſtand clear before his ordinary judges, may be condemned by that body. He might alſo conceive doubts of the authority, in this particular, though he could entertain none, of the power of the houſe. Thus diſtracted between a dread of their powers, and the neceſſity of executing his own as a magiſtrate, a general timidity and unſteadineſs muſt enſue in the adminiſtration of juſtice, which would produce the moſt fatal effects upon the peace and good order of ſociety.

Nor would it introduce a leſs dangerous confuſion in the ſupreme courts of law, from the ſame cauſes. The conſtitution has taught them to believe, that the judicial power reſts in them; and that, in the exerciſe of it, they are to be guided only by the whole legiſlature. But when they find, that the houſe of commons takes upon itſelf to participate, if not to ſuperſede, their power, and to alter their rule, with what degree of calmneſs of mind, and true judicial reſolution can they execute their high and important office? In vain are they made independent of the crown, if they are to be brought into a ſtate of dependence on the houſe of commons. It is indifferent how they are influenced, if they are to take the direction of their judgments from any thing, but the known

known eſtabliſhed laws of the land.

But, if this reſolution ſhould paſs, not only a general public confuſion would ariſe from it, but a great deal of particular injuſtice. The queſtion of the legality or illegality of theſe warrants is, ſaid they, now actually depending in a bill of exceptions before the ordinary judges. Ought the queſtion to be prejudged, and the parties, taking the due courſe which the law allows them, to have their cauſe evoked to the houſe of commons, and condemned there by an arbitrary reſolution? That is, to condemn men who acted upon the moſt numerous precedents, and of the beſt times; men, whoſe known character, and the tenor of whoſe whole conduct had ſecured them from the leaſt ſuſpicion of an ill intention to liberty; men, who, if they have made any miſtakes, have in themſelves, or thoſe who acted for them, been ſeverely animadverted on by the ordinary courts of juſtice.

Though the words of the reſolution extend only to the caſe of libels, yet the reaſon and equity of this reſolution extend to all general warrants, in all caſes whatſoever; and will it be thought prudent to deprive magiſtrates of a power, which is ſo often neceſſary to the public good? Conſpiracies of the moſt dangerous nature have been nipped in the bud by theſe warrants. Manufacturers have been going off to foreign countries, who if they had not been ſtopped and ſecured by general warrants, could never have been prevented from transferring ſome of the moſt valuable branches of our trade to other nations.

If ſuch reſolution be at all proper, it is now at leaſt premature. Why refuſe to wait the determination of the courts? The courts may do that regularly, which is ſought to be done with more trouble and leſs ſatisfaction in this new and irregular way. If the courts do not ſatisfy the expectation of the houſe by their determination, then it will be time enough for the commons to interpoſe. But if in reality the matter be ſo preſſing in time and importance, that the people cannot, (as it is repreſented,) be ſatisfied, that they are free, until the law on general warrants be declared, let it be declared in a way, that all are agreed is both effectual and conſtitutional, by act of parliament. The reſolution propoſed is neither the one nor the other. A bill, therefore, even on the principles of thoſe who favour the reſolution, is the only proper method.

In this manner the advocates for the adminiſtration oppoſed the reſolution. They, who ſupported it, inſiſted principally upon the evident illegality of the proceſs by a *general warrant*. By ſuch a warrant the moſt innocent man may be dragged from his bed, and, at any hour of the night, be hurried to priſon; his papers, the moſt ſecret and material, expoſed to the knowledge of mean and indiſcreet people, and liable to be loſt and deſtroyed by their negligence. They ſaid that this kind of warrant had a peculiar and moſt monſtrous quality beyond almoſt all other kinds of oppreſſive practices, by leaving a diſcretionary power over the liberty of the ſubject, not to magiſtrates only, whoſe wiſdom and regard to

character might poſſibly ſomewhat temper that arbitrary authority, but to the loweſt, and ſometimes the moſt profligate of mankind, the inferior officers of juſtice. For theſe officers were left entirely to judge, by the latitude of the deſcription, whom they ſhould fix upon as the offender.

The illegality of the warrants being (as they ſaid) eſtabliſhed, the method propoſed for preventing the future uſe of it was natural, conſtitutional, and within their own power. They did not pretend that the houſe of commons was the whole legiſlature, nor any part of the judicature of this kingdom; but they aſſerted it to be their undoubted right, a right eſtabliſhed by clear and frequent precedents, to cenſure by their reſolution any illegal practice, which they obſerved to be prevalent; and this not to be cited as law in courts of juſtice, but to ſerve as a threat and a monition to thoſe courts, and to all perſons public and private, of what they are to expect, when they preſume to quit the limits of the law, and to make any excurſions into the regions of arbitrary power.

Nothing can be leſs ſatisfactory, ſaid they, than our hopes from the deciſion of the courts, upon whoſe ſlow and uncertain progreſs the liberty of Engliſhmen is deſired to attend. Can we look with a paſſive acquieſcence on this kind of legal ſtruggle about our moſt important concerns, whilſt we ſee the privilege of parliament oppoſed to the remedy of the ſubject, and to prevent a determination upon a point of Engliſh liberty?

Affairs have been ſo managed, that the queſtion of the warrants is not directly before the judges, and conſequently this point is not in the way of being decided. How then does the houſe, by paſſing this reſolution, uſurp the juridiction of the courts, or predetermine a cauſe judicially depending before them? It is not, nor ever will be before them.

With regard to the objection, that this reſolution would tye up the hands of the magiſtrate, on dangerous occaſions, where ſuch warrants might be abſolutely neceſſary, they gave it this anſwer; that the reſolution confined itſelf ſolely to the caſe of libels, without ſtirring captiouſly ſo delicate a queſtion of government. An uſe of general warrants will be juſtified by its neceſſity in ſo critical an exigence. But is the caſe of a libel ſuch a caſe of neceſſity? The offence of a libel is not like that of a conſpiracy againſt the ſtate. There you apprehend to prevent as well as to puniſh. But, when the libel is publiſhed, the offence is carried as far as it can be carried; and you may wait without any public inconvenience, until proper information enables you to proceed againſt the offender by the known regular proceſs of law.

To bring in a bill for regulating warrants, would, indeed, be liable to thoſe conſequences, which are ſo improperly charged on the reſolution; the reſolution keeps a prudent ſilence upon points, on which a law would make, perhaps, an indiſcreet declaration; for if the propoſed ſtatute ſhould wholly condemn ſuch warrants, it would take away the uſe of them

them in any exigence; if it admitted exceptions, it would put all to ſea again; as it is impoſible regularly to define, and clearly to aſcertain caſes of neceſſity.

No general opinion is given by the compilers of this work on theſe arguments. So much, however, is certain, that nothing but the moſt ſerious attempt on the liberty of the ſubject, remediable by no other means, could make any perſon wiſh to ſee the houſe of commons very forward in voluntary declarations of law. And this much may be ſaid in juſtice to the ſpirit of the preſent age, that no body of men, in any ſtate, has given, at any time, a ſtronger proof of its moderation, and its regard to ſtrict conſtitutional principles, than the houſe of commons did in this one ſeſſion, upon two queſtions relating to its own juriſdiction; that of privilege, and this of general warrants.

The party for adminiſtration having carried an amendment to the reſolution, which conſiſted in ſtating the conſtant and uncenſured practice of office, an amendment calculated to exculpate the officers of ſtate, (even if the reſolution ſhould paſs,) the queſtion ſo amended was put on a motion to adjourn to that day four months, that is, civilly to diſmiſs it. The adjournment was carried; which decided, for that time at leaſt, a point of ſuch prodigious expectation.

Feb. 17th.

The minority, however, on this point was ſo very conſiderable, that adminiſtration may rather be ſaid to have eſcaped than conquered. It ſeemed to ſhake their whole fabric to the very foundations. But the progreſs of the ſeſſion ſhewed that their formidable numbers were only muſtered on this ſingle point. On all others there was no great difficulty.

Even upon the moſt momentous part of all there was no oppoſition. The miniſtry had laid the ſcheme of ſupplies in ſuch a manner, as to cut off one of the principal ſources of popular clamour. Agreeably to the principles which they had laid down in the former ſeſſion, in which they declared for the moſt ſparing uſe of taxation, and from the experience concerning the taxes, which they had ventured to propoſe in that ſeſſion, in the preſent they opened no loan, they accepted no lottery; though it is well known, that in ſome reſpects theſe loans and lotteries afford no unpleaſing opportunities to a miniſter of obliging his friends, and ſtrengthening his connections.

A debt contracted on account of the war, ſtill remained to be ſatisfied. This they propoſed to diſcharge to the amount of 2.000,000l. They found alſo 1.800,000l. exchequer bills at ſuch a diſcount, as to weigh down with them the whole building of the public credit.

As the bank contract was to be renewed, the treaſury availed itſelf very prudently of ſo favourable a conjuncture, and ſtipulated that this body ſhould take a million of theſe bills for two years at an intereſt reduced by one fourth, and, at the ſame time, ſhould pay a fine on their renewal of one hundred thouſand pounds. This they ſtated, and I believe it was ſo, as the moſt bene-

beneficial contract ever made with a corporation, whoſe vaſt money trade is carried on upon the credit of the government.

For the reſt of the exchequer bills, they ſtruck new ones. They brought to the ſervice of the nation 700,000l. the produce of the French prizes taken before the declaration of war, and which the king generouſly beſtowed upon the public. They alſo brought to account, what they ſtated had been ſo long unaccounted for to the detriment of the ſervice and the reproach of adminiſtration, the ſaving on the non-effective men; and this ſaving amounted to ſo great a ſum as 140,000l.

With theſe reſources, with the land tax now grown into a ſettled and permanent revenue of four ſhillings in the pound, with the tax upon malt, with two millions which they took from the ſinking fund, being the overplus of that fund, joined to ſome other ſavings, they paid off the foremention-ed debt, and provided for the ſervice of the enſuing year, in all its eſtabliſhments and contingencies, the whole amounting to 7.820,102l.

They juſtified their employment of the overplus of the ſinking fund by the exigency of the time, by former precedents, but principally on the credit of having augmented it by near 400,000l. in the ſingle article of tea, an immence quantity of which had been brought to pay duty by the wiſe meaſures taken for the prevention of ſmuggling, and the ſtrict and vigilant collection of the revenue. The reader who is diſpoſed to ſee a more exact and detailed ſtate of this miniſterial account, will find it under the uſual head in our Regiſter.

This ſtate of ſupply, and of ways and means, was introduced to the houſe, and afterwards to the public, with no ſmall parade and oſtentation. In the houſe it underwent no examination. But the party, who had been ſo ſilent on this weighty ſubject within doors, made full amends for their ſilence there by their criticiſms without. Whatever the debaters wanted, was made up by the writers, who examined this miniſterial account with great acuteneſs and ſeverity. Mar. 20th. 1764.

They charged it with being frivolous in ſome inſtances, in others fallacious, and unſatisfactory in all. Firſt, they denied that the debt, which the miniſtry boaſted to have diſcharged, was, for the much greater part of it, at all paid, but only poſtponed to gain the triumph of a day to the preſent, and to lie as an heavy burthen, perhaps, upon ſome future adminiſtration.

Secondly, they diſputed the merit which was claimed from having raiſed the ſupplies, without any additional taxes. If a miniſter, ſaid they, would acquire the merit of paying off the debt, it muſt be done either by improving the revenue, or by leſſening the intereſt of the debt. The work of the preſent miniſtry has been, to raiſe the rate of intereſt, and to impair the ſinking fund, inſtead of raiſing the ſinking fund and lowering intereſt. The miniſtry here have only poſtponed the neceſſary proviſions. They have left ten millions of out-ſtanding debts, which, until it is funded, will

will infallibly depreſs all the other ſtocks; we ſee that it does ſo, as they are at this moment 15 *per cent.* below par, and this we call a tax upon all ſtock-holders. Aſk the monied intereſt, whether the preſent miniſtry has laid any tax, and they will tell you that their property is worſe by twenty millions, than it would be if miniſters would do their duty; and if this is not a tax, let the miniſter give his definition of taxing.

Then go to the landed intereſt, and enquire what merit the miniſtry are to claim with them. Their merit is this; that they will not exert themſelves to provide for the neceſſities of the ſtate by a plan of diſtributing the burthen, and therefore have thrown the whole upon the ſhoulders of the landed men, rather than ſtir themſelves to effectuate any plan, by which the landed gentlemen might have to pay no more than their reſpective proportions, according to their way of living; they have transferred the whole upon the land, which from henceforward can have no chance of paying leſs than four ſhillings in the pound.

There was no part upon which they fell more ſeverely, than on the uſe which had been made of the ſinking fund, and the credit which the miniſtry had aſſumed by augmenting the revenue in the article of tea. On this particular, we apprehend, they had the greateſt ſucceſs; for they ſhewed very clearly, that the increaſe of the cuſtoms could not be owing, as the miniſterial pamphlets had aſſerted, to the increaſed duty upon that commodity, but had, for the greater part of it, ariſen upon other articles on which it was impoſſible for them to aſſume any particular merit.

It was alſo aſſerted, that after the ſeveral appropriations of the ſinking fund were ſatisfied, there might be found a great deficiency even towards ſupplying the two millions which were charged on it for the ways and means of this year, which would be as an heavy burthen on the proviſions of the next. Beſides, they calculated the probable future produce of that fund; and from this calculation they affirmed the impoſſibility of its being made for any long time ſubſervient to the plan which is now purſued; and that the unfunded debt could in no reaſonable period be diſcharged by it. To ſay nothing of its application to its original purpoſes, which now ſeems to be wholly forgotten.

Theſe charges on the miniſtry, made with art and boldneſs, and ſupported with an appearance of no mean ſkill in the finances, produced a great effect on the minds of the people, eſpecially as the facts were not anſwered with any thing which beſpoke either authority or information; nor were the conſequences drawn from them at all obviated.

But it muſt be obſerved, that, even in this charge, ſeveral points, and thoſe important ones, upon which the miniſtry had valued itſelf, were not called into controverſy. The application of the French prize money by the favour of the crown, at a time when there were, perhaps, other calls plauſible and preſſing enough to divert it another way; the beneficial contract with the bank, by which

which above one hundred thousand pounds was brought to the service of the year, the relief, at least temporary, procured to the public for a million of exchequer bills; and the saving on the non-effective men, amounting to so great a sum; those were matters of considerable merit; and we do not remember that they were even cavilled at.

Whether it were better, at that time, to have new taxes provided for the interest of the unfunded debt, is a question not at all easy to be decided; it had been disputed, without being at all determined, in the preceding year. As to the other capital objection, the estimated surplus of the sinking fund, time can only shew the grounds of the predictions concerning its failure, on which the impropriety of so large an application of it was alledged.

With regard to the charge of continuing the land tax at 4 s. in the pound, it is altogether frivolous. Heavy as that burthen unquestionably is, nothing is more certain, than that no plan of administration did or could propose to carry on public business, in our present circumstances, without that assistance.

On the whole, the scheme of ways and means seems to have had a considerable share of merit, though perhaps set off with a little too much parade, and some ministerial artifice in their situation, perhaps, not wholly inexcusable. Once more we wish to remind the reader, that we do not mean to enter at large into this difficult question. It would oppress our narrative. We touch the heads just as far as may tend to shew, on what general grounds our several parties have contended.

In this manner the session passed over; and the ministry, to whose duration so short a date had been assigned, not only weathered the storms of the session, but seemed to gather new strength to contend with future tempests. They gathered, at least, no small degree of boldness from their success; for, immediately after they had been somewhat hardly pressed in the question of the general warrants, several officers, some of them of high rank and distinguished merit in the army, were dismissed from the service. This step, (which was generally construed to be a punishment of these officers for their votes,) if it may be supposed to intimidate the unsteady friends of the administration, gave great reason of clamour to their enemies; if it shewed the power of the ministry in one session, it may be a means of shaking it in another. The practice of dismissing military men for parliamentary conduct having always appeared, if not unjustifiable, at least extremely indiscreet. Nothing could be better calculated to raise an alarm for the freedom of parliament.

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CHAP. VII.

Affairs in Indoſtan. Situation of Mir Jaffier. His territories invaded by a ſon of the Mogul's, and the Marattas. Ill condition of his government. He is depoſed; and Mir Coſſim ſet up his place. Character and deſigns of Mir Coſſim. His diſputes with the Engliſh. War undertaken againſt him. Mir Jaffier proclaimed.

THE affairs of India have been omitted for ſome time in our Regiſter, on account of the imperfections, obſcurity and contradictions in the relations of them, which had been made public. Though they are not, in all reſpects, thoroughly cleared, yet enough has appeared in the courſe of this year, to engage us to reſume them, and to treat of the events there as much at large, as is conſiſtent with our plan in conducting this hiſtory; in which we ſtudy to afford our readers as much information upon every ſubject of public concern, as can be given, without too great an exerciſe of their patience. In reality, the ſplendid and lucrative advantages we have acquired in India; the greatneſs of the enterpriſes, in which (whether wiſely or not) we have engaged ourſelves; the uncertainty of the final iſſue of thoſe attempts; the debates, almoſt equal, in zeal and fervour, to thoſe of national parties, which have ariſen upon them; naturally render the affairs of our company there a moſt intereſting object, and a matter of general and eager curioſity.

Since the year 1756, three capital revolutions have been effected in Bengal by our management. The company, which from a ſociety of merchants has become arbiter of kingdoms, raiſes and depoſes ſovereigns by its clerks and warehouſe-keepers; and the proprietors of India ſtock debate on the fate of princes and of nations, and diſpoſe of them with all the loftineſs, and all the power of a Roman ſenate.

The reader will remember the depoſition of Surajah Dowla, ſubah of Bengal, by the arms of Lord Clive in 1756, and the elevation of Mir Jaffier Aly Cawn, who attained to that tottering dignity by betraying and murdering his maſter. He was ſcarcely inveſted with it, when he found himſelf ſurrounded with difficulties and dangers. The kindred of the prince he had depoſed looked upon him with an evil eye, and filled his mind with continual apprehenſions. He had no confidence in the great men who ſurrounded him: he was, and not without reaſon, jealous and fearful even of the Engliſh power, which had wrought ſo great a revolution in his favour. His treaſury had been exhauſted and his beſt revenues mortgaged to ſatisfy the ſums, which he had ſtipulated as an indemnification and a reward to them. And the privileges, which he was obliged to grant them in trade, to the detriment of his cuſtoms, took away the few reſources he had left. His neceſſities put

put him upon odious methods of raiſing money, which loſt him the hearts of his ſubjects. Theſe neceſſities continued notwithſtanding theſe methods; and his troops, upon whom every thing depended, were ill diſciplined, becauſe not paid. This evil every day engendered on itſelf. Without the aid of the troops, the revenues could not be collected, no more than the troops could be paid without the revenues. The principal lords or rajas rebelled, and refuſed their accuſtomed tribute.

Thus ſurrounded at home by an army of mutineers and a court of conſpirators, he was threatened from abroad with invaſions from every quarter: from Shah Zada, a ſon of the mogul's who attempted to reduce him; and from the Maratta, a powerful and warlike nation, which has occaſionally all the governments of India under contribution. In this ſituation, his mind agitated and anxious, and filled with the bloody politics of his country, ſought relief by murdering the objects of his jealouſy, the family of his predeceſſor and the moſt factious of his courtiers. He entered into various negotiations with the Indian powers, and, it is ſaid, with the Dutch, in order to ſecure himſelf from the Engliſh. The poverty, into which he was fallen, obliged him to infringe ſeveral of the ruinous privileges, with which he had indulged the ſervants of the company; and thus he totally alienated the affections of thoſe, who were the diſpoſers of his fate. To compleat his misfortunes, his ſon, who alone of his children was arrived at maturity, and proved the ſupport of his tottering age and power, was killed by lightening.

A prevailing party in the council of Calcutta, obſerving the ſubah ſo extremely weakened, provoked at any oppoſition from one whom they conſidered as their creature, and, perhaps, hoping to advance their fortunes by new revolutions, formed a deſign of depoſing Mir Jaffier from the throne, which he filled with ſo much uneaſineſs and incapacity.

The crimes, however, with which they charged him, were evidently not of their cognizance; the injuries they pretended to have ſuffered, ſeemed light and trivial; and the exiſtence of the conſpiracies againſt the intereſt of the Engliſh was not very clearly eſtabliſhed. Nothing advantageous could be rationally hoped from ſuch a revolution to the general intereſts of the company. No ſucceſſor could be more intirely ſubject to them, from his want of natural ſupport, or perſonal capacity. This laſt conſideration was ſo ſtrong, that ſome, who afterwards cooperated in his depoſition, at firſt ſtrenuouſly oppoſed it; and ſome perſiſted in cenſuring, what ſeemed to them ſo bold and ſo unneceſſary a meaſure, to the very laſt. Thoſe, who had reſolved to take the management of affairs out of the hands of Mir Jaffier, inſiſted that his incapacity was ſuch, that, whatever advantages they might expect from it, unleſs he was aided and even controlled by ſome perſon of ability, he muſt ſhortly be ruined himſelf, and, poſſibly, the intereſt of the company in Bengal might be ruined along with him.

On these principles a secret treaty was concluded with Mir Cossim Aly Cawn, son-in-law of Mir Jaffier, not, indeed, to place him upon the throne of his father, but to vest in him all the power of it, leaving only his title to the subah. Mir Cossim, in his turn, made no scruples, but readily stipulated every thing which could be asked by those, in whose power it was to give or withhold the whole object.

Sept. 15th 1760

In consequence of this treaty, governor Vansittart, and colonel Caillaud (the same who has performed such important services in India) marched, under other pretences, to Murshudabad the capital, where the subah resided. They surrounded his palace, before he had any notice of their intentions; they demanded that he should dismiss his evil counsellors, and instantly vest the government in his son-in-law, threatening in case of refusal to storm his palace.

This unfortunate prince, betrayed by his family, and attacked by those to whom he owed his elevation, seemed at first determined to make some defence; but on their repeated threats, he ordered the gates to be opened, exclaiming, it is said, that he was betrayed; that the English were guilty of perjury and breach of faith; that he perceived their designs against his government; that he had friends enough to hazard at least one battle in his defence; but although no oaths were sacred enough to bind the English, yet as he had sworn to be their faithful friend, he would never swerve from his engagement, and rather suffer death than draw his sword against them. He seemed to be so satisfied that avarice was the motive to this attempt, that he desired to know, what sum of money Mir Cossim was to give for the subahship, and he would give half as much more to be continued in it. He hoped, however, that, if they intended to dethrone him, they would not leave him to the mercy of his son-in-law, from whom he feared the worst, but rather wished they would carry him from Murshudabad, and give him a place of safety in Calcutta.

Oct. 20th 1760

This request, which they chose to consider as a formal abdication, was instantly granted; and Mir Jaffier thinking justly, that there was a better security in the mildness of the European manners, than in the ties of nature in India, resided as a private man at Calcutta; enjoying, probably, more happiness in this retreat, than in all the grandeur, which he held for about four years with so many apprehensions, and attempted to secure, though in vain, by so many murders.

The successor, of a character altogether different from that of his father-in-law, bold, subtle, enterprising, of an extensive and commanding genius, felt his situation in all its degrading circumstances, and at once conceived the design of freeing himself from the chains of so dishonourable a dependence. He knew he was not served from friendship, and, therefore, thought he owed no return of gratitude. But for a while it was necessary he should dissemble, and take all possible

poſſible advantage of the power of his allies, whilſt it could be ſerviceable to him. By their aſſiſtance he cleared his government of invaders, and ſtrengthened his frontiers. He defeated Shah Zada, with whom he afterwards entered into a treaty, probably much to his advantage, and very little, probably, to ours. Then, and by the ſame aſſiſtance, he reduced the rajas, or independent Indian chiefs, who had rebelled during the feeble adminiſtration of his predeceſſor; and, compelling them to the payment of their uſual tribute, repaired his exhauſted finances, and thereby ſecured the diſcipline and fidelity of his troops. Having thus brought his province to peace and obedience by the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh forces, but one thing remained to his perfect eſtabliſhment; the ſecuring himſelf from thoſe very Engliſh. He complained, that he had been, even from his elevation to his new dignity, treated with ſo much of every kind of inſolence, that it ſeemed as if his power had been conferred upon him, merely to debaſe both his perſon and authority. This treatment confirmed him in his reſolution of aſſerting his independency, even as a neceſſary means of his repoſe as well as of his honour.

His firſt ſtep was to remove from Murſhudabad. The 1761. vicinity of this city to Calcutta gave the Engliſh factory an opportunity of a continual and vigilant inſpection of his actions; and an opportunity, whenever they thought fit, of interrupting him in his deſigns. He took up his reſidence at a place called Mongheer, two hundred miles higher up the Ganges. This place he fortified as expeditiouſly and ſtrongly as he could.

Here he began to form his army on a new model. He drew together all the Perſians, Tartars, Armenians, and other ſoldiers of fortune, whoſe military character he thought might inſpirit his Indian forces, and teach them to overcome their natural timidity. Senſible, likewiſe, of the ſuperiority of the European diſcipline, he neglected nothing to acquire it. Every wandering European, who had borne arms; all the ſeapoys who had been diſmiſſed from the Engliſh ſervice, he carefully collected, and diſtributed amongſt his troops to form them to our exerciſe. He changed the faſhion of the Indian muſquets from matchlocks to firelocks. And becauſe their cannon was nearly as defective as their ſmall arms, he procured a pattern of one from the Engliſh, on which he formed an excellent train of artillery. Attentive to his army, he was not forgetful of his court, the treachery and factious diſſentions of which had hitherto been more fatal to the Indian princes, than the inefficiency of their arms. He therefore cut off or threw into priſon every conſiderable perſon in his dominions, who had ſhewn any attachment to the Engliſh.

When he had thus ſtrengthened himſelf by every meaſure, which a wiſe and able man, unchecked by conſcience, could take, he began to exert that authority, which he thought he had ſo well eſtabliſhed, and to which he had ſo juſt a right. Although his revenue was on a much better footing than

that of his predeceſſor, yet ſtill it fell very ſhort of its ancient limits. That free trade, which had been indulged by the exigencies of Mir Jaffier, and was ſo much increaſed by his own, threatened to annihilate his cuſtoms, whilſt it drew all the interior as well as foreign commerce of Bengal from his own ſubjects, and its natural channels. He, therefore, began every where to ſubject the Engliſh private traders to the regular and equal payment of duties throughout his dominions, and directed that their diſputes, if beyond their own limits, ſhould be decided by his magiſtrates.

This ſtep alarmed the factory. Nov. 1762. The governor himſelf, Mr. Vanſittart, went to Mongheer to expoſtulate with him upon it. The ſubah anſwered his remonſtrances with great force of reaſon, and great command of temper. "If, ſaid he, "the ſervants of the "Engliſh company were permit-"ted to trade in all parts and "in all commodities, cuſtom free, "as many of them now pretend, "they muſt, of courſe, draw all "the trade into their own hands, "and my cuſtoms would be of "ſo little value, that it would "be much more for my intereſt "to lay trade entirely open, and "collect no cuſtoms from any "perſon whatſoever upon any "kind of merchandize. This "would draw a number of mer-"chants into the country, and "increaſe my revenues, by en-"couraging the cultivation and "manufacture of a large quan-"tity of goods for ſale, at the "ſame time that it would effec-"tually cut off the principal "ſubject of diſputes which had "diſturbed the good underſtand-"ing between us, an object "I have more than any other "at heart."

No reply could be made to this. The matter was evidently in his power, and he had a full right to do it; but the procedure tended evidently to deſtroy the private trade carried on by the gentlemen of the factory, and even to prejudice, as they ſaid, that of the company itſelf. Though long uſed to dictate on all ſuch occaſions, the governor found the new nabob ſo intelligent and ſo firm, that he thought proper to ſubmit to regulations, by which the privileges of the Engliſh were put under ſeveral, perhaps not unreaſonable, but, certainly, very unpleaſing reſtrictions. Theſe regulations were inſtantly put in execution; and the Indian magiſtrates began to exerciſe their power with a proper ſpirit, as they aſſerted, but, as our people complained, with partiality and rigour.

As ſoon as the effect of this negotiation at Mongheer was known at Calcutta, the factory was immediately in a flame. They were filled with aſtoniſhment and indignation at finding, that an Aſiatic prince, of their own creation, had dared to be a ſovereign. They began to repent of their late change, and to wiſh that they had left the timid and indolent Mir Jaffier to ſlumber quietly on his throne. The council of Calcutta diſavowed their governor, and refuſed to abide by his treaty. Jan. 17th. 1763. They affirmed that he aſſumed a right, to which

which he was no ways authorized; that the regulations propoſed by him were diſhonourable to them as Engliſhmen, and tended to the ruin of all public and private trade; and that the preſident's iſſuing out of regulations, independently of the council, was an abſolute breach of their privileges. They ſent orders to all the factories, that no part of the agreement between the governor and the ſubah ſhould be ſubmitted to.

Diſputes aroſe amongſt them; every thing was at once thrown into confuſion, and commerce interrupted in every part. They applied again to Mir Coſſim to enter into a new agreement. But now grown confident of his ſtrength, with many accuſations of their inconſtancy and inſolence, he haughtily refuſed to negotiate with their deputies; The Engliſh factory, yielding in nothing to his ſpirit, prepared to draw thier army into the field, and once more proclaimed Mir Jaffier ſubah of Bengal beginning of July 1763.

CHAP. VIII.

Engliſh ſurpriſe Patna. Driven out and defeated. Major Adams takes the field. Action at Ballaſara. Battle of Nuncas Nullas. Siege of Auda Nulla. Great ſlaughter of the Indians. Mongheer reduced. Maſſacre of the Engliſh priſoners at Patna. Patna taken. Mir Coſſim flies out of Bengal.

IN this war the firſt blow was ſtruck by the Engliſh. Patna is a city of great extent and conſiderable trade on the Ganges, about 300 miles above Calcutta. There the Engliſh Eaſt India company have a fortified factory, and ſome European as well as Indian ſoldiers. Whether in conſequence of orders from the ſuperior council at Calcutta, or from ſome ſeparate deſign, or from ſome offence or provocation given or underſtood, we have no information, this factory on a ſudden attacked and carried that great city, notwithſtanding its fortifications had been newly repaired, and that it was defended by a ſtrong garriſon. On the firſt attack, the governor and garriſon fled, and ſome ſlaughter enſued. On the taking of this place with ſo little reſiſtance, the conquerors neglected all precautions; they fell looſely and greedily on their prey, and diſperſed themſelves on every ſide, waſting and plundering this opulent and feeble city.

June 25, 1763.

The Indian governor, as ſoon as he had recovered from his fright, perceived the error of his enemies; and reſolved to avail himſelf of their diſorder. Reinforced in the country, he returned to Patna four hours after he had left it. The place was retaken with as little reſiſtance as it had been loſt. The Engliſh, wildly diſ-

perſed about the city, were all either cut to pieces, or obliged to ſeek refuge in their fort.

Such was the ſudden change in their affairs and ſpirits, that the factory, which a few hours before was not afraid or unable to ſtorm the city, were not now in a condition to defend their fort. They took the reſolution of abandoning it, and retreating into the territories of a neighbouring nabob. They accordingly croſſed the Ganges, and met with no obſtruction during the firſt three days of their march; but they were at length overtaken, attacked by a ſuperior force, and after two engagements, in the firſt of which they had the advantage, were intirely routed. July 1ſt.

It appears (from what information we poſſeſs,) that, without conſidering the reaſon or equity of the thing, the attack of Patna by our factory there was not a deſign very prudently conceived. In the heart of the enemies country, near the very center of his ſtrength interpoſed directly between them and their friends, in no great numbers, at a vaſt diſtance from all ſuccour, no offenſive operation could be expected from them. But, if they had contented themſelves with acting on the defenſive, from the inexpertneſs of the Indians in the art of reducing ſtrong places, they might have maintained themſelves for a long time in their factory.

The deputies, who had been ſent to Mongheer, were attacked in their return home, and miſerably ſlaughtered with their attendants, though they had been furniſhed with the Nabob's paſs, which ought to have protected them. This act of treacherous hoſtility haſtened the preparations of our army, which immediately took the field under major Adams. It conſiſted, at firſt, of no more than one regiment of the king's forces; a few of the company's; two troops of European cavalry; ten companies of ſeapoys, and twelve pieces of cannon. July 3d 1763

They very ſoon came to action, and having the advantage in two briſk ſkirmiſhes, they cleared the country to the Coſſimbuzar river, a conſiderable branch of the Ganges, which it was neceſſary they ſhould paſs, before they could maſter Murſhudabad, the capital of the province. The enemy made no oppoſition to their paſſing of the river; but had drawn out their army, conſiſting of 10,000 men, in an advantageous poſt on the other ſide, between the river and the city. The place was called Ballaſara. The Indians, on ſome judicious motions of major Adams, were obliged to begin the engagement, which they did with great reſolution, and bore the cannonade with great firmneſs, until they arrived within fifty yards, when they received ſuch a ſtorm of muſquetry, as obliged them to retire with precipitation. This advantage was ſoon followed by a compleat victory. July 11th and 14th July 19th

Great activity, which in every ſcene of military operations is of ſuch moment, was here much more neceſſary, than on common occaſions.

caſions. The rains began to fall heavily, and the ſervice was ſevere. No time was therefore loſt. Major Adams proceeded directly to Murſhudabad; but he found the enemy again in his way. They were well poſted; their entrenchments were fifteen feet high, and defended with a numerous artillery.

It would have been an injuſtifiable boldneſs to think of gaining ſuch a poſt in the face of the enemy. It was however neceſſary to gain it by ſome method. A ſtratagem was laid, and ſucceeded. The En-
July 23d gliſh commander made a feint with a ſmall body of troops againſt that part, where the enemy had collected their ſtrength. Whilſt they were amuſed with this appearance, the whole army was marched in the night; and at day break, the Indians found them at the oppoſite quarter of their intrenchment, where they had but a ſlight guard. Aſtoniſhed with this ſtroke they fled, and abandoned the intrenchments, and the city, which they covered, to the conqueror.

This great advantage did not ſlacken the diligence of the Engliſh. They penetrated into the heart of the province, and fought the ſubah in the utmoſt receſſes of Bengal, acroſs the numerous and wide branches of the Ganges; through marſhes and foreſts.

Mir Coſſim, on his ſide, was not remiſs in his defence. He obſerved two maxims well adapted to the quality of his troops, and to the ſlight attachment of Indian ſubjects to their ſovereign. For he did not act, as the eaſtern princes have too often done, who commit the whole iſſue of the war to a ſingle battle, to which they draw the whole ſtrength of their dominions, and in which their raw troops confounded the veterans, and the bad diſordered the good. But, as we have ſeen, he diſtributed his forces, and defended his dominions poſt by poſt. His ſecond maxim was not to hazard his own perſon in any engagement. Faithful ſubjects are always animated by the preſence of their king. But, ſituated as he was, another event was to be expected, if he ſhould put himſelf at the head of his troops. He therefore conſtantly declined it. He knew that his officers, conſcious that they could make no merit of their treachery by being able to deliver up their prince, and that their conduct in one engagement could neither ſettle his fortune or their own, would fight with much more ſteadineſs and reſolution.

His conduct was formed upon wiſe principles, but his army had not yet time to be compleated in diſcipline. The Engliſh were in the full career of victory, and nothing could ſtand before them. But they found a ſenſible difference in the oppoſition made to their arms, though it was not able fully to obſtruct their progreſs.

When they met the principal force of the Indian army, on the banks of a river called Nuncas Nullas, Aug. 2d. they found their poſt choſen with great judgment; they found a body, which, in a manner, reflected their own; divided into regular brigades, with a good train of artillery well ſerved; the ſame arms, the ſame accoutrements and

and the ſame cloathing with their own. What was more ſtriking, they found much of their own order and ſpirit. What was never before obſerved in India, the enemy did not begin their cannonade, until the Engliſh had begun their attack, and thus maintained their ground in an obſtinate diſpute of four hours conſtant firing. Their cavalry alſo charged the regular European troops at twenty yards diſtance with uncommon reſolution. But, though their diſcipline and ſpirit were ſo greatly ſuperior to any thing, which had been known before in that part of the world, and though they conſiſted of 20,000 horſe, and 8,000 foot, the Engliſh were in the end ſuperior. The Indians were obliged to quit the field, and abandon all their cannon.

After this deciſive proof of the ſuperiority of our forces, they never attempted a regular engagement in the open field, during the whole campaign. But they ſhewed neither want of diſcipline nor want of ſkill in purſuing other meaſures. A poſt, called Auda Nulla, by nature very ſtrong, they had fortified with as much care, as if it had been the weakeſt. In front it had a conſiderable ſwamp; it was protected on one ſide by the mountains; on the other by the river Ganges. Here they threw up a great work, and mounted an hundred pieces of cannon; having in their front a deep ditch fifty-four feet wide, and full of water in every part except that which lay towards the mountains. The breadth of dry ground, which the Engliſh had for carrying on their approaches, did not exceed two hundred yards, and lay between the ſwamp and the river.

This was a poſt rather for a ſiege than for an attack. The efforts againſt it were, therefore, the operations of a ſiege. They were continued with great diligence, but without any deciſive effect, from the 21ſt of Auguſt to the 4th of September, when the commander, tired out with this ſlow and uncertain procedure, reſolved to change his meaſures.

The enemies whole attention had been diverted to the river, on the ſide of which the principal attempts of the Engliſh had been all along made. They were quite negligent on the ſide of the mountain; ſecure from the remoteneſs of the grand attack of the Engliſh, and the great natural ſtrength of their poſt on this quarter.

On this quarter, therefore, major Adams reſolved to make an attempt. After having diſpoſed every thing for an attempt of ſuch importance with great judgment, he detached major Irwin with a choſen body of Europeans, and the beſt ſeapoys or Indian ſoldiers in the army, the whole amounting to about 2000 men, to attack that part before day break, being prepared to follow and ſupport them with the whole line.

This ſervice was ably and reſolutely performed. The intrenchments were carried; a general confuſion and an incredible ſlaughter of the enemy enſued. As many periſhed by drowning as by the ſword. The rout of the Indians was total.

On this defeat they abandoned a vaſt tract, and though they had ſeveral other very defenſible poſts one behind another, they made a ſtand

ſtand at none of them, but laid open the whole country to the victorious arms of the Engliſh to the gates of Mongheer, which the nabob had made the place of his reſidence, and the center of his military arrangements. The place, about which he had taken ſuch pains, was ſurrendered to them after only nine days open trenches. Two thouſand men marched out of the fort. Oct. 11th.

Nothing now remained to the complete reduction of this province, but Patna. This was the laſt hope of Mir Coſſim. Accordingly he omitted nothing to ſtrengthen and ſecure it. He placed in the city a garriſon of 10,000 men, and hovered at ſome diſtance with ſeveral large bodies of horſe to annoy the beſiegers. But this unfortunate barbarian had merited by his cruelties the ill ſucceſs which had conſtantly attended all his meaſures, which, in themſelves, were far from being ill taken.

The priſoners, which he had made at Patna, amounted to near two hundred Engliſh. Irritated at the progreſs of our arms, and unable to avenge himſelf in the field, he iſſued orders for murdering them. One Somers, a German, a deſerter from the company's ſervice, was the perpetrator of this execrable villainy. He had invited above forty officers and other gentlemen in the company's ſervice, who were among theſe unfortunate perſons, to ſup with him on the day he had fixed for their execution; and when his gueſts were in full ſecurity, protected, they imagined, by the laws of hoſpitality, as well as by the right of priſoners, he ordered the Indians under his command to fall upon them and cut their throats.

Even theſe barbarous ſoldiers revolted at the orders of this ſavage European. They refuſed at firſt to obey; deſired that arms ſhould be given to the Engliſh, and that they would then engage them. Somers, fixed in his villainy, compelled them with threats and blows to the accompliſhment of that odious ſervice. The unfortunate victims, though thus ſuddenly attacked and wholly unarmed, made a long and brave defence; and with their plates and bottles even killed ſome of their aſſailants, but in the end they were all ſlaughtered. The reſt of the priſoners of every rank met with the ſame fate. Oct. 6th

But it was not long unrevenged. Major Adams marched with the body of his army without delay from Mongheer to Patna. The detail of the operations of a ſiege are entertaining and inſtructive to but a very few readers. The enemy in this ſiege, as in all the operations of the campaign, conducted themſelves with a military ability hitherto unuſual with them. They made ſallies with vigour and ſpirit; and in one of them blew up a principal magazine. This advantage acquired them ſome credit, but was not ſufficient to ſave the place, which was not fortified with any regularity, and ſeems not to have had any outworks. The Engliſh batteries ſoon deſtroyed their defences, ſilenced their cannon, and made a practicable breach.

In

Nov. 6th. In eight days this important city was taken by ſtorm.

The nabob had now loſt all his places. His army was reduced to a ſmall body. He was obliged to fly for refuge to Sujah Doula, ſubah of a neighbouring province, who had great power, and acted as grand vizir to the mogul. He received this fugitive prince into his territories, but afforded him only an aſylum for his perſon. He refuſed to admit his army, not willing to render his own province the ſeat of a war, which had been ſo unfortunate to his neighbour.

No campaign had ever been conducted with more ability; no plan better laid or more ſyſtematically followed; no operations more rapid. In leſs than four months, major Adams compleated, for the firſt time of any European, the entire conqueſt of the kingdom of Bengal. He fought in that time four capital actions with the enemy; forced the ſtrongeſt intrenchments; took two conſiderable fortified places; near 500 pieces of cannon, and prevailed over the moſt provoked, reſolute, cautious, and ſubtile enemy we ever had in India. Whether the motives for beginning the war do us any great honour may be a queſtion; but the proſecution and the concluſion of it have acquired great glory to our arms. How affairs in India will be like finally to ſettle, and what uſe we may be able to make of thoſe great advantages we have obtained, it will be impoſſible even to gueſs at, until the accounts of next year.

As to the ſavage war in America, without being intirely extinguiſhed, its fury is much abated. The American Indians, unaſſiſted by any European power, have no reſources ſufficient to ſupport an uniform and long continued ſyſtem of hoſtility. Sir William Johnſon, of whoſe faithful ſervices ſince the beginning of the troubles in that part of the world too much can ſcarcely be ſaid, concluded a treaty early in the year with the Senecas, one of the revolted tribes of the Iroquois; which having drawn one of the moſt conſiderable ſuccours from thoſe, who ſtill perſevered in their enmity to us, the confederated tribes between lake Erie and the Ohio have ſince thought proper to ſubmit, though not till they ſaw a body of troops, under the command of colonel Bradſtreet, advancing towards their country from Niagara, and another from Philadelphia, under colonel Bouquet, in the very heart of it.

Apr. 3d. 1764.

Sept. and Oct. 1764.

CHRO-

CHRONICLE.

JANUARY.

1ſt. THERE was a great court at St. James's to compliment their majeſties on the new year, as uſual, but no ode; an omiſſion, which, as there was no apparent reaſon for it, occaſioned ſome ſurpriſe, conſidering how religiouſly that cuſtom uſed to be obſerved in times, when there was neither the ſame materials for panegyric, nor the ſame genius to work them up. As to the ancient cuſtom of public hazard playing at court on twelfth night, it now ſeems to be entirely laid aſide.

4th. A comet was diſcovered by M. de Haan, at Harlem, in the conſtellation of the Dragon, about 30 deg. from the Arctic Pole. It was as large as a ſtar of the third magnitude, but its tail, which was about 20 min. was very feeble. Next day it was obſerved at Tewkſbury, Glouceſterſhire, near two ſmall ſtars in the hand of Bootes.

12th. His moſt ſerene highneſs the hereditary prince of Brunſwick Lunenburg landed at Harwich from on board his majeſty's yacht the Princeſs Auguſta, and on the evening of the next day arrived at Somerſet Houſe, in the king's equipages, attended by ſeveral noblemen who went to wait his arrival at Harwich. The next morning his ſerene highneſs waited on their majeſties, and the reſt of the royal family, and on the 16th at ſeven in the evening the ceremony of the marriage of her royal highneſs the princeſs Auguſta with his moſt ſerene highneſs, was performed in the great council chamber by his grace the archbiſhop of Canterbury. None but peers and peereſſes, peers eldeſt ſons and peers daughters, privy counſellors and their wives, and foreign miniſters, were admitted to be preſent at the ceremony. Their ſerene and royal highneſſes remained at St. James's till nine, and then repaired to Leiceſter Houſe, where a grand ſupper was prepared; at which were preſent their majeſties, the princeſs dowager, princes William and Henry, and the reſt of the royal family. Their majeſties went away about twelve.

The next day their majeſties, her royal highneſs the princeſs dowager of Wales, and their royal and ſerene highneſſes the prince and princeſs of Brunſwick, received the compliments of the nobility and gentry, which were followed by moſt dutiful and affectionate addreſſes from both houſes of parliament and the city of London.

On the 26th, at three in the evening, their highneſſes ſet out for Harwich, loaded with preſents

from their majeſties, and the reſt of the royal family, and attended by the tears of many and the good wiſhes of all, which the prince returned by his prayers for the ſucceſs of this nation, for which, he ſaid, he had already bled, and would again, with pleaſure, on any future occaſion. The princeſs, in a German travelling habit, and attended by lady Suſan Stuart and two noblemen, went in one coach, and the prince, with ſome of the noblemen of his court, followed in another. The princes William and Henry Frederick, and two noblemen, went next in poſt chaiſes and four attended by many ſervants on horſeback but no guards. By eight, they arrived at the ſeat of lord Abercorn, at Witham in Eſſex, where a grand entertainment was provided for their highneſſes, and they were met by many of the nobility of both ſexes, who had ſet out before to ſpend the evening with their highneſſes.

On the 27th their highneſſes ſet out for Miſtley-hall, and from thence, the next day, arrived at Harwich, where the corporation waited upon them with their compliments of congratulation, and had the honour of kiſſing the princeſs's hand.

On the 29th they embarked in different yachts, and ſailed the 30th, but did not reach Helvoetſluys till the 2d of February, having been overtaken by very bad weather, in which there was the greateſt reaſon to fear their highneſſes had periſhed, as it was ſeveral days before any certain and agreeable account of them reached London.

His ſerene highneſs, during his ſtay in London, was ſumptuouſly entertained by his royal highneſs the duke of Cumberland, and many of the principal nobility and gentry, viſited every place worth the attention of a traveller, confirming all ranks in thoſe ſentiments of love and eſteem, which his behaviour in the Britiſh army in Germany had already ſo juſtly inſpired. But no part of his highneſs's behaviour ſeemed to give ſo much pleaſure as his paying a viſit, in a free and friendly manner worthy of himſelf, to Mr. Pitt, then confined by the gout at his country ſeat.

Their highneſſes, at their ſetting out, were pleaſed to order 500 l. each for the relief of poor priſoners for debt.

14th. The maſter of a circulating library was tried for ſelling a ſpurious pamphlet, called an *Eſſay on Woman*, for that ſaid to be printed for Mr. W. when a verdict was given againſt the defendant, who was ordered to pay coſts and return the purchaſe money.

In the morning a violent ſtorm blew from W. S. W. which did great damage throughout theſe kingdoms. During the ſtorm two dreadful fires broke out, one near Hyde Park corner, and another in Ratcliff Highway, but they were both happily extinguiſhed, after conſuming ſeven or eight houſes each, a ſmall number conſidering how fiercely they burned, and how faſt they ſpread, the roofs of the houſes being all in a flame, before any of the floors were damaged.

Laſt week the driver of a ſtage machine going to Newbury fell dead from his box within three miles

miles of that place, but was not miſſed by the paſſengers till after their arrival, the horſes having brought them to their inn without any ſtop or accident; a remarkable inſtance of the great ſagacity and tractableneſs of that noble animal.

17th. Ended the ſeſſions at the Old Bailey, when nine malefactors recieved ſentence of death; viz. five for burglary; one for forgery; one for a footpad robbery; and two women for privately ſtealing; but, except two for burglary, and the criminal for forgery, they were afterwards pardoned, on condition of tranſportation. Thirty-ſix were ſentenced to be tranſported for ſeven years, one for 14 years; two were branded, and one was whipped.

18th. A ſurpriſing meteor was obſerved at St. Neot's 36 min. after five in the evening; it appeared was a pale red, in contact with a condenſed cloud, and in 1 min. 34 ſec. formed a ſemicircle oppoſite the moon, and by the refraction of its rays, was a bright rainbow, a thing rarely, if ever, obſerved after ſun-ſet.

At the adjourned ſeſſions of the peace for the city of London, at Guildhall, the court was pleaſed to order, that journeymen taylors ſhall be allowed 2s. 7d half-penny per day the whole year, and their hours of working to be from ſix in the morning to eight at night: but in caſe of the earl marſhal's order for a general mourning, they are to be allowed five ſhillings per day for a limited time.

25th. His majeſty went to the houſe of peers, and gave the royal aſſent to

The bill for naturalizing his ſerene highneſs the prince of Brunſwick.

The bill for puniſhing mutiny and deſertion.

And to ſome private bills.

At a general court of the governors of the bank, it appeared, that they had obtained a renewal of their charter, which was almoſt expired, for 21 years, from 1765, on conſideration of their paying toward the ſupplies 110,000 l. and lending the government a million on exchequer bills, to the year 1766, at 3 per cent. and then to be paid off.

31ſt. There was obſerved at St. Neot's, 42 min. after ſix o'clock in the evening, 6 min. to the eaſt of Rigel, a ſtar of the firſt magnitude in the left foot of Orion, and in eight deg. 29 min. 24 ſec. ſouth declination, a globe of fire; its apparent diameter was about two thirds of the moon's, with a long tail of five times its diameter. As the moon was not above the horizon, and the ſky very clear, it appeared very luminous, and enlightened the whole atmoſphere, which reflected the rays of light as if the ſun had been above the horizon. This phenomenon moved with great velocity, for it was near the top of the terreſtrial atmoſphere, which perhaps was raiſed to a pyramid, 15 or 16 miles higher than when the balance is in equilibrio, cauſed by the preſſure of the atmoſphere on the nadir; in its motion it croſſed the meridian inclining to the weſt, in an angle of 15 degrees; it was about 39 ſec. falling to the earth.

The following extract from a letter of Mr. Bart. Rocque of Walham-Green, dated the 6th of laſt month, cannot fail of giving

great pleaſure to all thoſe, who are zealous for the happineſs of mankind, and theſe countries in particular, and know how much that happineſs is promoted by every improvement in agriculture.

"'Tis true I have forty acres of land, but have but about ten in lucern. As to what they ſay of my making thirty-five pounds per acre, I will tell you how that was.

I ſold the firſt, ſecond, third and fourth mowings at a ſhilling per rod, which came to thirty-two pounds per acre: Then I mowed it a fifth time, ſo ſuppoſe they computed the fifth to come to three pounds, which certainly made thirty-five pounds, which it did. But I don't approve mowing it ſo often; for it bleeds it too much, and gives too much air to the natural graſs the ground is inclined to bear.

If your ſoil is very good, you can make ſeven or eight loads per acre."

In conſideration of this ſurpriſing improvement, the ſociety of arts ſoon after adjudged Mr. Rocque a bounty of 50 guineas, and we hope they will ſoon have occaſion to grant more bounties of the like kind to others, in proportion as the practice recommended by the ingenious Mr. Stillingfleet, and enforced by the offer of premiums on the part of the ſociety, of cultivating graſſes, apart, in the ſoils, and after the manner, moſt agreeable to their reſpective natures, extends itſelf.

In the courſe of this month there fell ſuch heavy rains in theſe kingdoms, in Germany, Holland, Flanders, and the northern provinces of France, that moſt of their low lands were overflown by the breaking of banks and riſing of rivers, &c. and vaſt numbers of cattle were drowned, or periſhed for want of fodder. Many people likewiſe loſt their lives. In ſome places, even where no banks had been deſtroyed, the waters remained till the year was far advanced.

Edinburgh, January 25. At a meeting of our preſbytery this day, upon a motion made by a member, that a paragraph in the London news-papers, dated Thurſday, Jan. 12, to Saturday, Jan. 14, ſhould be read; it was read accordingly, and is as follows; "They write from Edinburgh, that ſince the 24th of September, laſt 29 couples, from different parts of England, have been married in that city, according to the church of Scotland." The preſbytery of Edinburgh think it their duty, in juſtification of themſelves, and the reſt of their brethren of the eſtabliſhed church of Scotland, to ſay and declare, that not one of theſe marriages, nor any marriage of that kind, has been performed by any miniſter of this preſbytery, nor, ſo far as they know, by any miniſter of this eſtabliſhed church. What forms the celebrators of ſuch marriages have obſerved, whether thoſe of the church of England, or of the church of Scotland, this preſbytery knows not.

Paris, Jan. 15th. The duke of Fitz-James's affair is juſt ſettled to his honour, after three meetings of the dukes and peers at the palace royal, in which there were warm debates. The chief ſubject of theſe debates was, whether the parliament of Toulouſe had a power to take him into cuſtody. The prince

prince of Conti ſpoke a full hour, with great eloquence, in favour of Fitz-James, but was anſwered by the duke of Orleans and the prince of Conde, who both vindicated the parliament of Thouloufe; who, on the whole, have no reaſon to be diſpleaſed with the arret on this ſubject, ſince it confirms their rights and privileges, and thereby thoſe of all the other parliaments, who are, thereupon, beginning to enter on the exercife of their functions; ſo that the diſorders occaſioned by the two edicts and the declaration of April laſt muſt ſoon give place to order, concord, and tranquillity.

The joy occaſioned by this proſpect of peace is not a little heightened by that of plenty, the king having iſſued an edict for the free commerce of grain, in conſequence of which, it is to be hoped, we ſhall no longer ſee our beſt lands lying fallow in the moſt favourable ſeaſons; or our poor periſhing for want of bread in one part of the kingdom, whilſt the corn is rotting in the granaries of another.

The inhabitants of Sta. Lucia have diſcovered an animal flower. In a cavern of that iſle, near the ſea, is a large baſon, from twelve to fifteen feet deep, the water of which is very brackiſh, and the bottom compoſed of rocks, from whence at all times proceed certain ſubſtances, which preſent at firſt ſight beautiful flowers, of a bright ſhining colour, and pretty nearly reſembling our ſingle marygolds, only that their tint is more lively. Theſe ſeeming flowers, on the approach of a hand or inſtrument, retire, like a ſnail, out of ſight. On examining this ſubſtance cloſely, there appears in the middle of the diſk four brown filaments, reſembling ſpiders legs, which move round a kind of yellow petals, with a pretty briſk and ſpontaneous motion. Theſe legs reunite like pincers to ſeize their prey; and the yellow petals immediately cloſe to ſhut up that prey ſo that it cannot eſcape. Under this appearance of a flower is a brown ſtalk of the bigneſs of a raven's quill, and which appears to be the body of ſome animal. It is probable that this ſtrange animal lives on the ſpawn of fiſh, and the ſmall inſects, which the ſea throws up into the baſon.

Mrs. Jordan of Southwark was lately delivered of three boys.

Died lately. The celebrated Dr. King, principal of St. Mary-hall, Oxford.

Mary Blaſgave, at Oxford, aged 106. She lived a widow 85 years.

Mr. Lane of Norton, Glouceſterſhire, aged 107.

FEBRUARY.

1ſt. Mr. Blake, to whoſe laudable endeavours, under the patronage of the ſociety for the encouragement of arts, manufactures and commerce, to ſupply the markets of this great city with fiſh by land carriage, the public is ſo much indebted, was this day almoſt unanimouſly releaſed from his obligation of 1,500l. advanced to him by that ſociety, on his pledged ſecurity, over and above the 2,000l. configned to his diſcretionary uſe in that undertaking. And, ſoon after, the parliament, thoroughly convinced of the great uſefulneſs of this ſcheme, and his great

zeal and abilities to eſtabliſh it, were pleaſed to allow him 2,500l. for that purpoſe. The above ſociety has diſburſed very near 20,000l. in this manner ſince its firſt eſtabliſhment in the year 1755, and has above 3,000l. ſtill remaining.

6th. India ſtock fell 14 per cent. and great debates aroſe among the ſtockholders on the arrival of the Lapwing packet from the Eaſt-Indies, with the account of the war's breaking out there with ſuch unpromiſing circumſtances. The reader will find ſome account of theſe debates in the appendix to the Chronicle.

12th. The tide in the river Severn, which always comes up with a great head and an amazing rapidity and noiſe, came half an hour before its uſual time. This greatly aſtoniſhed the people who obſerved it; but their ſurpriſe was heightened, when they perceived a ſecond tide coming up, with equal force, within half an hour of the firſt.—At Briſtol the tide flowed an hour and three quarters before its time; ceaſed to flow, and flowed again.

14th. The crew of his majeſty's ſhip Pembroke, chaired in grand proceſſion, muſick playing and colours flying, their late boatſwain, through the ſtreets of Portſmouth and Goſport, and then made him a preſent of a gold call and a ſilver cup, in gratitude for his kind behaviour to them during the late war.

15th. The honourable houſe of commons ſat till between ſeven and eight o'clock in the morning, on the affair of Mr. Wilkes, as author of the North Briton. The ſpeaker was twenty hours in the chair, which was the longeſt ſitting, by three hours, that is remembered to have happened.

21ſt. Came on at the court of king's Bench, Weſtminſter, before lord chief juſtice Mansfield, the trial of John Wilkes, eſq; for reprinting and publiſhing the North Briton, N° 45, at his own houſe. The council for the crown were, Mr. attorney general, Mr. Morton, Mr. Clayton, and Mr. Wallis; and for the defendant, Mr. ſerjeant Glynn, Mr. recorder Eyre, Mr. Stowe, Mr. Dunning, and Mr. Gardener.

Sir Fletcher Norton, attorney general, obſerving, that certain inflammatory papers had been ſent to the gentlemen of the jury, in favour of the defendant, tending to biaſs and prejudice their minds, Lord Mansfield made ſome remarks on the heinous nature of ſuch a proceeding, if true; and declared, if the offending party could be diſcovered, he ſhould be puniſhed in the moſt exemplary manner. A queſtion being then put to the jury relative to the above papers, the foreman acknowledged the fact; but at the ſame time another of the jurymen produced a paper on the other ſide, which he obſerved was equally inflammatory. The trial laſted eight hours; the jury retired for an hour and three quarters, and brought in their verdict Guilty.

The court then proceeded to the trial of Mr. Wilkes for printing and publiſhing the Eſſay on woman, (the ſame gentlemen as before being council on each ſide) of which alſo the jury, after withdrawing about half an hour, found him guilty.

At a court of common council held at Guildhall, the thanks

of

of the court were ordered to be preſented to the repreſentatives of the city, for their zealous and ſpirited endeavours to aſſert the rights and liberties of the ſubject, *by their laudable attempt* to obtain a ſeaſonable and parliamentary declaration, *That a general warrant for apprehending and ſeizing the authors, printers, and publiſhers of a ſeditious libel, together with their papers, is not warranted by law.* And to exhort them in the warmeſt manner, ſteadily to perſevere in their duty to the crown, and uſe their utmoſt endeavours to ſecure the houſes, papers and perſons of the ſubject from arbitrary and illegal violations. At the ſame time, reſolved, that, "as the independency and uprightneſs of "judges is eſſential to the impartial adminiſtration of juſtice, "and one of the beſt ſecurities "to the rights and liberties of "the ſubject," this court, in manifeſtation of the juſt ſenſe of the inflexible firmneſs and integrity of the right honourable Sir Charles Pratt, lord chief juſtice of his majeſty's court of common pleas, doth direct, that the freedom of this city be preſented to his lordſhip, and that he be deſired to ſit for his picture, to be placed in Guildhall, in gratitude for his honeſt and deliberate deciſion upon the validity of a warrant which had been frequently produced to, but, ſo far as appears to this court, never debated in the court of king's bench, by which he hath eminently diſtinguiſhed his duty to the king, his juſtice to the ſubject, and his knowledge of the law.

This example of the city of London in thanking and inſtructing their repreſentatives, in regard to general warrants, and thanking lord chief juſtice Pratt, and preſenting him with his freedom, has been followed by a great many corporations and private companies in England; as that of thanking his lordſhip, and preſenting him with his freedom, was firſt ſhewn by that of Dublin, and ſome companies in Ireland.

A treatiſe entitled Droit le roy, a rhapſody of all the prerogatives at any time attributed to the kings of England, was burnt by the common hangman, at Weſtminſter-hall gate, and on the 27th at the Royal Exchange, purſuant to an order of both houſes of parliament. The author himſelf narrowly eſcaped. 25th.

The ſeſſions ended at the Old Bailey, when five malefactors received ſentence of death; two for ſtreet-robberies; one for burglary; a woman for privately robbing a man; and a man for robbing a woman near Newington. This laſt has ſince been reprived. 28th.

At this ſeſſions John Franklin was tried for aſſaulting and wounding the honourable Thomas Harley, eſq; in the execution of his office, at the time when the North Briton, N° 45, was burnt at the Royal Exchange, and was convicted thereof; but notwithſtanding the heinouſneſs of the offence, he was, at Mr. Harley's interceſſion, only ſentenced to three months impriſonment, to pay a fine of 6s. 8d. and give ſurety for his good behaviour for one year.

Came on at Guildhall, before the right honourable the lord chief juſtice Pratt, an 29th.

action brought by Mr. Arthur Beardmore againſt the king's meſſengers, for entering his houſe and inſpecting *his and his clients books and papers*; when, upon the opening the cauſe, Mr. attorney general obſerved, that another action was depending, which Mr. Beardmore had brought, for falſe impriſonment, againſt the ſaid meſſengers, jointly with the right honourable the earl of Halifax, under the ſame warrant. Upon this it was propoſed that both actions might be tried upon one record, on which Mr. Beardmore and his council immediately expreſſed their deſire to unite both actions, and the court recommended to have the ſaid earl joined as a party, that the whole merits againſt all parties charged or concerned might be tried in one action; and Mr. attorney general promiſing to recommend the ſame, thereupon his lordſhip appointed to try the cauſe on Friday the 4th day of May next.

The court of directors of the Eaſt India company have made colonel Coot a preſent of a diamond hilted ſword, which coſt 700l. as a teſtimony of their gratitude for the ſervices he has done the company in the Eaſt Indies, and a memorial of his courage and conduct in the conqueſt and demolition of the famous French ſettlement of Pondicherry.

At Aſhton, in Gloucesterſhire, a large tract of land, of near 16 acres, ſlipt lately from that ſide of Breedon-hill in the pariſh of Grafton, and has entirely covered ſeveral paſture grounds and a conſiderable ſpace of the common field at the bottom of the hill. Some ſtiles, that were in the foot-way to Aſhton, and are left ſtanding, are now ſeventy paces diſtant from the paths to which they belonged. The ground, that has thus quitted its natural poſition, has preſerved its own ſurface almoſt entire, except in a few places, where chaſms ſeveral feet deep appear. The tops of trees twenty feet high, which grew at the lower part of the hill, are now ſcarcely two feet above ground; from whence it is thought the moving earth was near twenty feet in depth. This very extraordinary accident is attributed to the inceſſant rains, as the ſoil, now uppermoſt, is of a boggy nature.

A gentleman, who has been at conſiderable pains and travel, and who is reckoned a judge of the quality of ſtones and foſſils, has preſented to the members of the royal ſociety, and to the ſociety for the encouragement of arts, &c. a collection of Scotch garnets and other ſtones, found in the Highlands of Scotland, ſome of which have been cut by a lapidary in the diamond way, and are as beautiful as a ruby, equal in colour and weight to any oriental ſtone, bear the fire, retain their colour, and are reckoned great curioſities.

Their royal and moſt ſerene highneſſes the hereditary prince and princeſs of Brunſwick, on their landing at Helvoetſluys on the 2d inſtant, were complimented by the great cup-bearer, Bigot, on the part of the prince of Orange; by M. de Reden, charged by the king of Great Britain and the regency of Hanover, to conduct them to Lunebourg; and M. de Boilwitz, on the part of the duke of Brunſwick. The

next

next day, the hereditary prince took the route by land, and arrived towards evening at the Hague. Her royal highneſs embarked at the ſame time on board the yachts of the prince of Orange, and of the admiralty, and, having a fair wind, arrived the ſame evening at Delftſhaven, and the next morning at Delft, where the hereditary prince and duke Lewis of Brunſwick, as well as the Engliſh ambaſſador, came to meet her. The equipage of the prince ſtadtholder, with an eſcort of body guards, conducted her royal highneſs from Delft to the Hague, to the palace of the prince ſtadtholder, called the Old Court, where, on alighting from her coach, ſhe was received by the prince ſtadtholder, who handed her to her apartments, where her royal highneſs received, ſome time after, the compliments of the foreign miniſters, and a great number of perſons of diſtinction.

The ſtates general, the ſtates of Holland, and the council of ſtate, upon news of their highneſſes arrival, nominated a deputation of their moſt diſtinguiſhed members, to compliment them upon their ſafe arrival, and the happy concluſion of their marriage; but as they were pleaſed to decline receiving theſe deputations in form, all the colleges had the honour to make their compliments without ceremony.

The prince ſtadtholder gave the ſame day a grand dinner and ſupper, at the ſaid palace, to their royal and ſerene highneſſes, who went in the evening to the French comedy, and were entertained on the following days by the duke Lewis of Brunſwick, his ſerene highneſs's uncle; general Yorke, &c.

On the 11th their highneſſes arrived at Loo, on the 12th at Twickel, and the ſame day paſſed the frontiers of the ſeven provinces.

Paris, Feb. 14th. Some days ago an officer, of the regiment of Champagne, being at maſs at Douay in French Flanders, a burgher happened to tread upon his dog, which ſo exaſperated the officer, that he beat the man ſeverely; and, on his making reſiſtance, killed him on the ſpot. This outrage ſo incenſed the inhabitants, that they gathered about the houſe where the officer lodged, demoliſhed the windows, ſeized his baggage and threw it into the ſtreet; broke his poſt chaiſe and ham-ſtrung his horſes, and afterwards fell upon the officer himſelf, and dragged him through the kennel, till he died. The officers on duty, taking the alarm, beat to arms, ſecured all the gates, fired upon the townſmen, and killed nine, wounded many more, and ſoon diſperſed the reſt. This affair, being properly repreſented, is now under conſideration at court, and it is thought the regiment will be broke.

At a general court of our Eaſt India company held this day, Mr. Bertin informed them in the king's name, that his majeſty would give them no further aſſiſtance, becauſe he could not do it but at the expence of his other ſubjects; that the ſtockholders might make proviſion for continuing the trade and paying the debts, or elſe declare that they could not continue it; in which caſe his majeſty would ſee to it; that the ſtockholders in the mean time ſhould continue to

receive a dividend of 40 livres for each ſhare till paid off, and ſhould chuſe ſyndics from among themſelves to manage their affairs. The directors had previouſly reſigned.

The governor of Cayenne and Guyanne, an aſſociate of the academy of Caen, has propoſed the three following premiums, to be diſpoſed of next year. "The firſt "of 200 livres, for ſalting, at the "leaſt expence, beef, which, when "carried to the Weſt Indies, ſhall "be as good as the Iriſh. The "ſecond of 400 livres, for making flour of the grain of the "province, that will bear exportation to the colonies as "well as the Engliſh. The "third of 300 livres, for preparing and ſalting butter equal "to the Iriſh."

Yeſterday fourteen fellows were burnt alive at Brie, near this city, for poiſoning the cattle of that province.

At a place called Buch, near Verſailles, lives a woman, the iris of whoſe eyes is divided into 12 ſections, forming an exact dial, the figures reſembling thoſe on the ſmall watches that are included in rings to wear on the finger. She was born with this peculiarity, and yet has the perfect uſe of her ſight.

Wurtemburg Feb. 16. This being our duke's birth-day, there was a grand hunting in his foreſts, when his highneſs, and the lords of the court, killed 304 deer, 3,900 hares, 290 foxes, 394 partridges, 111 pheaſants, and 27 woodcocks: in the evening the whole court appeared at the opera in their hunting dreſſes, and at night ſupped in high good humour.

Saxony, Feb. 1ſt. The diſtemper among the horned cattle, which has lately raged in this electorate to ſuch a degree, as to kill between two and three thouſand head of cattle in a ſhort time in five villages only, is greatly abated, by hanging four or five onions about the beaſts neck directly after they are taken ill, and will not eat. Thoſe onions draw out the infection, and look the next day as if they had been boiled. This remedy is to be repeated ſeveral times, and the onions which have been uſed, are to be buried in a deep hole. In a few days after, the cattle are taken with a running at the noſe, which carries off the diſtemper. It is alſo proper at that time to hang up ſome onions in the diſtempered cattles ſtables.

Gran, in Hungary, Jan. 25th. In removing the foundation of the caſtle in this city to make room for a new palace, the workmen found an earthen vaſe, containing 1,258 Roman medals, fourteen of which were ſilver, and the reſt copper. Thoſe of ſilver are of the emperors Gordian, Maximilian, Diocleſian, and Conſtantine, and thoſe of copper were ſtruck in the reigns of Claudius, Tacitus, Probus, Carus, Carinus, &c. There are alſo in this collection two medals of the empreſs Magna Urbica Auguſta, who is ſuppoſed to have been the wife of Carinus.

Copenhagen, Jan. 25. Notice as been given at the head of all the regiments in the king's ſervice, that no officer for the future will be permitted to marry till he has depoſited in the widow's cheſt a ſum of money, which for a colonel is fixed at 1,000 rixdollars; for a lieu-

a lieutenant-colonel or major at 600; for a captain at 400; and for a lieutenant at 300. Their widows will be entitled to a penſion, from the time of their huſbands death, of 40 per cent. of the money depoſited.

Naples, Jan. 28. In the night of the 19th of this month, a mountainous rock, about 18 miles from this city, ſplit aſunder, and the waters which were probably contained in its cavities, joined to a very heavy rain, waſhed away and deſtroyed two villages ſituated on its declivity, and where upwards of 150 perſons periſhed. The waters ruſhed at the ſame time into the town of Caſtellamare, which is at the foot of the mountain, and roſe in ſome places to the height of 14 feet. A great number of the inhabitants took refuge on board the veſſels which lay in the port, and there waited with the utmoſt impatience for day-light, to know the fate of their habitations and effects. Several warehouſes and other buildings were intirely under water.

There are now living at Folkſtone three men and two women, children of one father and one mother, whoſe ages put together amount to 402, and who, with their proper iſſue by blood, now living, amount to the number of 100 perſons, viz. children, 5; grand-children, 16; great-grand-children, 60; and great-great-grand-children, 19. It is ſomewhat extraordinary, that ſo numerous an offspring ſhould live and reſide in ſo ſmall a town at one time.

Died lately. Elizabeth Cave of St. Luke's workhouſe, aged 100.

Mr. Stevens at Bletchingly, aged 103.

One Lars Nillſon, in Sweden, aged 104. At 70, when his hair was white and his ſight greatly weakened, he had a fever, which continued two months, in which time his hair came quite off; but, on his recovery, it grew again of the colour it was in his youth, his eye-ſight returned, and no alteration happened in either till his death.

Jacob Mayer, of Berne in Switzerland, aged 115.

MARCH.

5th. Arrived from Oſnabrug, Baron de Schele, whom the ſtates and noble chapter had ſent with the news, that the election was happily fallen, agreeable to his majeſty's intentions, upon his ſecond ſon prince Frederick, as biſhop and ſovereign of that ſee.

7th. Sir Thomas Harriſon having waited on the right honourable the lord chief juſtice Pratt, and preſented to his lordſhip the freedom of the city of London in a gold box, purſuant to the order of common council; his lordſhip returned the following anſwer:

'SIR,

It is impoſſible for me not to feel the moſt ſenſible pleaſure in finding my behaviour in the adminiſtration of juſtice approved by the city of London; the moſt reſpectable body in this kingdom, after the two houſes of parliament.

If they have been pleaſed, from

any part of my conduct, to entertain an opinion of my integrity (the best quality of a judge) my utmost ambition is satisfied; and I may venture, without the reproach of vanity, to take to myself the character of an honest man, which the city of London hath told me I am intitled to; but they will give me leave, at the same time, to ascribe it only to my own good fortune, that I happened to be distinguished upon the present occasion beyond the rest of my brethren; since I am persuaded, that, if they had been called upon as I was, they would have acted with the like conscientious regard to their oaths, and to the law of the land.

Since, however, the city of London has now given me a reputation, I must take more than ordinary care to preserve their gift by the strictest attention to my duty, knowing, that the best way of thanking the public for honours like these is by persevering in the same conduct, by which their approbation was first acquired.'

12th. Came on to be heard at the bar of the house of lords, an appeal from the court of session in Scotland, wherein John Walker and others, members of the town council of Edinburgh, were appellants, and the magistrates of the said city respondents, relating to the right of presenting ministers to the churches there; when, after a hearing of two days, the house was pleased to affirm the decree of the court of session.

The victualling contract for his majesty's navy was this day 24s. and 8d. a hundred for beef, not 3 d. a pound, though beef, in common, is sold for 4d. half-penny.

17th. At 39 minutes and 30 seconds after ten, began an eclipse of the moon, which continued increasing till 3 minutes and 48 seconds after midnight, at which time 8 digits and 40 minutes of the moon's apparent surface were eclipsed.

20th. The new harbour at Hartley, made by Sir John Hussey Delaval, Bart. was opened in the presence of many thousand spectators; and the next tide two vessels, one of them full laden, sailed in, notwithstanding the sea was uncommonly high, and the wind easterly, through the entrance which was cut out of the rock above three hundred yards long and nineteen feet deep. There were entertainments in all the public houses; besides which, three large oxen, and several hogsheads of ale, were given to the populace. This astonishing work has been compleated in three years.

21st. His majesty went to the house of peers, and gave the royal assent to the following bills, viz.

The bill for naturalizing his most serene highness the hereditary prince of Brunswic Lunenburgh.

The bill to continue an act for allowing the free importation of tallow, hogs-lard, and grease, a further limited time, from Ireland.

The bill for better regulating his majesty's marine forces when on shore.

The bill to amend an act of last sessions, for laying an additional duty on cyder and perry.

And

And to several private bills.

Bethlem hospital is to pay from this day to the 29th of September, 2s. 3d. per stone for mutton, veal, and beef, whereas for the same months last year, the charge was only 1s. 9d. per stone. Several salesmen, who were examined before a committee of the house of commons, to discover the causes of this increase of price, alledged many causes not at all concluſive or probable.

26th. This day his majesty signed a proclamation for the sale by auction of all his majesty's lands in the islands of Grenada, the Grenadines, Dominica, St. Vincent and Tobago, excepting such lands as shall be necessary for fortifications and other military works, glebes for ministers, allotments for school-masters, high roads, woodlands, and other public purposes; under the following conditions. That the purchasers pay 20 per cent. of the whole purchase money down, 10 per cent. in one year, 10 per cent. in the second year, and 20 per cent. every year after, till all is paid. That every purchaser shall have one white man, or two white women, for every 100 acres cleared, or pay 20l. for every white woman, and 40l. for every white man wanting. That one acre in twenty shall be cleared every year, till half the land is cleared, 5l. to be payed for every acre not so cleared. That six-pence per acre be paid to the crown as a quit-rent on such lands as shall be cleared. No person to purchase more than 300 acres of land in Dominica, or 500 in the other islands. That districts shall be allotted for towns; a penny per foot for ground-rent for tenements, and six-pence per acre for fields. No more than one town lot to one person, and five acres of pasture land to each town lot; 800 acres in each parish to be reserved for poor settlers, to be divided into lots of not less than ten, nor more than thirty acres each; to be granted in fee simple. The land to be occupied and entered upon in three months after the grant. No lands granted to poor settlers to be alienable by sale or otherwise, for seven years, except for the children of the first settlers; and all mines of gold and silver to be reserved to the crown. The sale to be in June next, if surveys can be made so soon.

The claim of a noble lord to the island of St. Vincent, after a solemn hearing, was adjudged invalid; his lordship's ancestor, instead of landing there, clearing a certain quantity of land, and placing thereon a certain number of white people, having never so much as attempted to land, after miscarrying at Sta. Lucia. And it is in consequence of this determination, that St. Vincent is mentioned with the other islands, in the above proclamation.

27th. The earl of Morton was elected president of the royal society, in the room of the late earl of Macclesfield.

29th. At the anniversary feast of the London hospital, 1714l. was collected for that charity. As was some days before 553l. at that of the small-pox hospital. And a considerable sum at that of the lying-in charity for married

married women at their own habitations.

30th. Came on the election of a high ſteward for the univerſity of Cambridge, when there appeared among the black-hoods for the earl of Hardwicke, *placet* 103, *non placet* 101. Among the white-hoods the proctors accounts differed. Mr. Longmere's was for lord Hardwicke, *placet* 108, *non placet* 107. Mr. Foſter's was *non placet* 108, *placet* 107, on which a ſcrutiny was demanded by his lordſhip's friends, and refuſed; and a great confuſion enſuing; the vice-chancellor adjourned the ſenate *ſine die*.

31ſt. The ſcaffold for fixing his majeſty's ſtatue at the Royal Exchange was ſtruck, when it was remarked, that the ſceptre was put into the wrong hand.

Lieutenant governor Thickneſs, who ſome time ago ſent a wooden gun to lord Orwell, has been ſince ſentenced to three months impriſonment, and a fine of 100l. &c. for it, as a libel on his lordſhip.

At the ſale of Mr. Thoreſby's Muſæum, the following medals and coins ſold as under.

	l.	s.	d.
The famous copper medal of Col. Lilbourne	2	17	0
A Saxon penny of king Alfred's — —	4	1	0
Two pennys of Alfred and Ethelred — —	5	7	6
One Eactachius —	4	10	0
One ditto, ſtruck at York — —	8	8	0
One Stephen and Henry —— —	3	7	0
Two groats of Richard III. —— —	3	3	0
A proof piece for a penny of Henry VIII. —	3	0	0
A Scarborough ſiege coin Charles I. —	7	7	0
Ditto — —	7	2	6
A commonwealth ſix pence —— —	3	4	0
A pewter Iriſh crown of James II. — —	5	7	6
A commonwealth farthing ——— —	3	6	6
Two farthings of Charles II. — —	3	4	0

The ſociety of arts in the Strand have given a premium of 50l. to Mr. Benjamin Moore, for the introduction of the manufactory of emboſs'd paper into this kingdom, and making that paper ſuperior to that imported from abroad; and have offered a premium of 5l. for every hundred of turbots, not leſs than ſixteen inches from the eye to the fork, and 2l. 10s. for every hundred under ſixteen inches and not leſs than ten inches from the eye to the fork, which ſhall be caught by Britiſh ſubjects, with hooks and lines, and brought for ſale in London or Weſtminſter, between the 1ſt of May and 31ſt of Auguſt, 1764.

At a late ſale of the forfeited eſtates of Panmure, Southeſk, and Mariſhal, every heir bought his own, and offered for it in perſon, to the great joy of great numbers of people of all ranks, drawn by friendſhip or curioſity to ſo affecting a ſcene.

The king of Spain has lately ſent the univerſity of Edinburgh a preſent of four large folio volumes of prints engraved from the paintings found in the ruins of Herculaneum;

neum; and the univerſity have ſent his majeſty a very handſome letter of thanks, written in Latin.

Report of the ſtate of the Magdalen charity, from its opening on the 10th Auguſt 1758, to the 22d inſtant.

Admitted in all —	583
Of whom there have been reconciled to, and received by their friends —	63
Placed in ſervices in reputable families and to trades —	196
Proved lunatics, and afflicted with incurable fits —	23
Died — —	10
Uneaſy under reſtraint and at their own deſire diſcharged	53
Never returned from hoſpitals, to which they were ſent to be cured —	28
For faults and irregularities diſcharged —	94
Now in the houſe —	116
	583

Fifteen women, who were diſcharged the houſe, are ſince well married. And many who were diſmiſſed, from uneaſineſs under reſtraint, by their own deſire, and for ſmall faults, have, rather than return to their former evil courſe of life, gone into induſtrious and honeſt employments, and are likely to live with reputation in the world.

Since Great Britain has been in poſſeſſion of the river of St. Lawrence, a very valuable whale fiſhery has been diſcovered there, which was unknown to the French. Upon this diſcovery the people of New England fitted out ten veſſels of 100 tons each, which had ſuch ſucceſs, that in 1762 they ſent fifty veſſels, and laſt year upwards of eighty. The quantity of whalebone produced by this fiſhery, and imported from New England within theſe two years, has already reduced that commodity from 500 l. to 350 l. a ton.

A gentleman lately returned from the Eaſt-Indies, and who was very curious in his obſervations there, relates, that ſome years ago there was a republic of Jews at the city of Patna, the capital of the kingdom of Bahar, which once conſiſted of 60,000 families, but is now reduced to 4000. They have a ſynagogue near the nabob's palace, in which their records are kept, engraved on copper-plates in Hebrew characters; ſo that theſe Jews pretend they can ſhew their own hiſtory from the reign of Nebuchadnezzar to the preſent time.

The above-mentioned race of Jews declare themſelves to be of the tribe of Manaſſeh, a part whereof was, by order of that haughty conqueror, carried to the eaſternmoſt province of his large empire, which extended to the Indus, from whence they removed to the Ganges; and this journey 20,000 of them travelled in three years from their ſetting out from Babylon. An abſtract of their hiſtory has been tranſlated from the Hebrew, and may be of ſervice to the learned world.

A new machine for extinguiſhing fires by a chemical exploſion has lately been invented at Paris, and is already in ſuch high repute, that it is ſaid the inventor has made his fortune by it. And ſome very ſucceſsful experiments lately made by order of the intendants

dants of marine at Breſt, where an old man of war was fired in each hatchway, and extinguiſhed by throwing in the above machines, have occaſioned that few ſhips of war or merchantmen now go to ſea without them.

Their royal and moſt ſerene highneſſes the hereditary prince and princeſs of Brunſwick arrived the 15th inſtant at Nienburg, and the next day at Zell. The burgeſſes of both theſe towns received them under arms, and the air reſounded with acclamations of joy. They were complimented at Nienburg by the generals Sporcken, Wangenheim, Reden, and Walmoden; and at Zell by baron de Furſteini and M. de Bock. The counteſs of Yarmouth received them at Neuſtadt. Their highneſſes continued their route to Lunenburg, eſcorted by a detachment of horſe.

On the 19th his ſerene highneſs arrived at Brunſwick. And on the 21ſt her royal highneſs followed. She was met at Wenden, three miles from Brunſwick, by a party of light horſe; and when ſhe came within one mile of the town, by the reigning duke, the ducheſs, prince Ferdinand, and the whole illuſtrious family, who were come in ſix coaches and ſix. After repoſing ſome time in a large ſplendid green pavilion, the reigning ducheſs and her royal and ſerene highneſs ſet out in an open coach, that the people might ſee her. During her paſſage, and at her approach to town, attended by military muſic, 90 guns were thrice diſcharged, and the bells of the town and adjacent places were rung. Without the gate paraded a company of prince Frederick's grenadiers, and forty of the horſe life-guards, dreſſed in leather jerkins, laced with ſilver. Within the gate were two battalions of the foot-guards, two battalions of Gen. Imhoff's regiment, two battalions of gen. Manſberg's regiment, and two battalions of the hereditary prince's own regiment. Her royal highneſs was preceded by two ſquadrons of huſſars, and followed by 60 of the horſe life-guards, another ſquadron of the huſſars, and a great number of officers on horſeback. After they alighted at Granhoff, the duke's palace, the princeſs appeared at the window, while the regiments filed by and ſaluted her; which done they went to the ramparts and fired three ſalvos. At five o'clock their highneſſes ſat down to table, from which they aroſe at eight, played at cards in the great aſſembly room till ten, when they went to ſupper, and then retired to the hereditary prince's palace.

On the 22d, the whole court was aſſembled in the morning in the prince's palace: At two her royal highneſs went to the duke's palace, with lady Stuart in her coach, followed by his ſerene highneſs. In the evening their highneſſes went to a new opera, and were received at their entrance with great acclamations of the people. After the opera they ſupped in the great ball room, and there was a ſplendid ball, which laſted till early the next morning.

On the 23d they dined in public, and in the evening went to an operetta.

On

On the 24th was a great ball at court, and a ſupper in the parterre of the opera houſe, on a table in the form of an A, with 80 covers.

On the 25th was an operetta. And,

On the 27th a pantomime, called, Harlequin in the Harts.

This amiable princeſs has already won the hearts of her future ſubjects, by her moſt gracious and popular behaviour.

Madrid, February 20. On the 16th, the prince of Aſturias eſpouſed his ſiſter in the name of the archduke Leopold. His catholic majeſty led the queen mother by the hand to and from the altar. All the foreign miniſters aſſiſted at the ceremony.

Stockholm, February 10. Laſt year there were exported from Gottenburg 101,143 tons of ſalted herrings, 48 ſmoaked, and alſo 322 freſh; and 3284 tons from that city, and 38,728 from other parts of the ſame coaſt, have been ſent into the inland parts of the kingdom. There have been likewiſe exported 63,016 cannes of oil from this fiſh, which, after an abſence of 50 years, have, within theſe two years, returned in great plenty to our coaſt. This branch of commerce meets with the encouragement of the government. And, as the approach of the whales has been found to drive the herrings away, ſeveral additional veſſels for the whale fiſhery on this coaſt have been conſtructed.

About the beginning of this month, a girl was born near Toulon, in France, whoſe whole face reſembled a hare, excepting her ears; ſhe was otherwiſe fair and well ſhaped. Her mother declares, that at the beginning of her pregnancy ſhe had a ſtrong inclination to eat the raw heart of a hare, which her huſband brought home one day, but could not prevail with herſelf to make known her deſire.—Another very remarkable fact comes authenticated from the ſame quarter. The wife of a conſiderable merchant, who conſtantly attended maſs, and uſed to give charity to a poor man who had loſt his right arm, was ſoon after brought to bed of a ſon who wanted his right hand, which the mother attributed to the impreſſion the maimed appearance of the man made upon her mind. But what is ſtill more remarkable; this ſon is grown to maturity, married, and has now a ſon, who, without any ſuch impreſſions, was born without a hand. How will the naturaliſts account for this phœnomenon?

By the death of the late Sir Jacob Gerard Downing without male iſſue, an eſtate of 6000l. per annum devolves to the univerſity of Cambridge, for building and endowing a college to be called Downing college.

Mrs. Gillet, of St. Paul's Alley Fenchurch Street, Mrs. Smith, of Hatton Garden, and a journeyman cooper's wife in Paul's Alley, Barbican, were lately delivered each of three children.

Mr. Pring, of Little Brickhill, aged 102.

Diedl latey William Taylor, of Baſingſtoke, aged 102.

Robert Maber, at Frampton, Dorſetſhire, aged 104.

A peaſant in Sweden, aged 104, having

having had 115 descendants, of whom 47 are living.

An invalid of the same nation, aged 104.

James Wark, of Belfast, aged 106.

Mrs. Elizabeth McNeal, in Dublin, aged 107.

Died lately. Elizabeth Greig, a beggar-woman, at Leith, aged 109; she retained her senses and spirit to the last; and a few days before her death had vigour sufficient to go about in quest of alms.

John Bourke, in the Isle of Man, aged 112.

Peter Martin, in Auvergne, in France, aged 113.

David Evans, in Greenwich, aged 114.

Ralph Hart, at Newcastle, aged 115.

Jacob Meyer, of Berne in Switzerland, 115.

Mr. George Brett, in Ireland, aged 115, with all his teeth sound.

Mrs. Clifford, of Wexford, aged 117.

Mrs. Elizabeth Taylor, of Piccadilly, aged 131.

APRIL.

1st. The long expected annular eclipse of the sun was observed at London, Greenwich, and many other places. But as the sky was not favourable to the observation at London or Greenwich, we shall give that made with great distinctness at Edinburgh, where the sky was remarkably clear.

The eclipse began 9h. 9m. A.M.
greatest obscuration 10 24
end 11 53

Just before the eclipse became annular, three or four dark spots were observed near the lower limb of the sun; which, if they were not in the sun itself, are supposed to be occasioned by the rugged or mountainous edge of the moon. The planet Venus made her appearance during the eclipse, but none of the other heavenly bodies.

The thermometer being exposed to the sun, before the eclipse began, rose from 65 to 73; during the eclipse it fell 17½ deg. at the time of the greatest obscuration to 55½; and at the end of the eclipse it rose again to 61.

3d. The archduke Joseph was crowned king of the Romans at Francfort, and the solemnity of the coronation performed with the usual ceremonies, and with great dignity and order. The three ecclesiastical electors, and the electoral ambassadors, all in their mantles adorned with gold lace, went to the dome between nine and ten in the morning. The emperor and the king of the Romans, preceded by a numerous train, repaired thither an hour after. Their majesties were received at the gate by their electoral highnesses, the trabans of Saxony being posted as a guard there. The church was hung with rich tapestry, representing the great actions of the emperors of the august house of Austria. Before the gate of the choir was an altar richly adorned; on the right-hand of which was the emperor's throne; on the left, that of the elector of Mentz; and opposite, that of the king of the Romans. The seats of the two other electors, and for the plenipotentiaries, were ranged about in a half-circle. The coronation

ronation was performed by his electoral highneſs of Mentz, with the ceremonies preſcribed by the golden bull. Towards two in the afternoon, the emperor and the king of the Romans quitted the church, and, according to cuſtom, returned on foot, under a ſuperb canopy, to Romerberg; and, during the proceſſion, 300 pieces of cannon were fired. The new king was cloathed with the ornaments of royalty, the crown upon his head, ſceptre in his hand, and antique ſlippers, covered with pearls, on his feet. Being arrived at the Hotel-de-ville, their majeſties ſat down to table, and were ſerved by the reſpective repreſentatives of the electors, and by the other great officers of the empire, each performing the functions of his poſt. At the end of the repaſt, they went to one of the windows of the great hall, to ſee the money, with the gold and ſilver medals, thrown amongſt the people; and at ſeven in the evening they returned to their palace. Next day the new king of the Romans received the compliments of an infinite number of perſons of diſtinction.

In the mean time, whole oxen were roaſted in the ſtreets and given to the populace; the medals and money thrown among them amounted to 150,000 crowns.

5th. His majeſty went to the houſe of peers, and gave the royal aſſent to the following bills, viz.

A bill for granting a certain ſum out of the ſinking fund for the ſervice of the year 1764.

A bill for granting certain duties on goods in the Britiſh colonies for the ſupport of the government there; and for encouraging the trade to the ſugar colonies.

A bill for leſſening the duty on the importation, and raiſing it on the exportation of beaver ſkins.

A bill for regulating pilots, &c.

A bill for encouraging the manufacture of Britiſh ſail-cloth.

A bill for diſcharging recognizances eſtreated in the exchequer.

A bill for regulating buildings, and preventing fires.

And ſeveral road bills, and bills for incloſing land, &c.

By the above act relating to the Britiſh colonies, a duty of 1l. 2s. is laid on foreign clay'd ſugars inſtead of 5s. 6d. a duty of 6d. a lb. on indigo, inſtead of 2d. coffee 2l. 19s. 9d. per cwt. Madeira wine 7lb. per ton; Port and Spaniſh wines 10s. a ton; wrought ſilks, Bengals, and ſtuffs mix'd with ſilk or herba, 2s. a piece; callicoes 2s. 6d. a piece; cambricks 3s. French lawns 3s. coffee and piemento of the growth of the Britiſh colonies; coffee 7s. a cwt. piemento 2d. a lb. foreign molaſſes and ſyrups 3d. a gallon, inſtead of 6d. which was ſeldom paid. Theſe duties are all to be paid into the exchequer, and reſerved for defraying the charges of protecting the Britiſh colonies in America.

At the anniverſary meeting of the Magdalen charity, the ſermon was preached by the biſhop of Clonfert, and the collection amounted to upwards of 1200l. near double the ſum uſually collected.

9th. Several thouſand journeymen ſilk weavers went in pro-

proceſſion from Spittalfields, and waited on his majeſty at the queen's palace in St. James's Park, with a petition, repreſenting the miſerable condition themſelves and families are reduced to, by the clandeſtine importation of French ſilks. They waited before the court-yard, and two gentlemen, belonging to the ſaid manufactory, had the honour to be introduced to his majeſty's preſence, and preſented their petition, which his majeſty received in the moſt gracious manner, and gave for anſwer, that an affair of ſuch conſequence to the kingdom ſhould be properly laid before the parliament, and that they might depend on his care and protection.

12th. The ſecond diviſion of the Havannah prize money was paid in the following ſhares.

	l.	s.	d.
Lord Albemarle	20,000	0	0
General Elliot	4,000	0	0
Major General	1,125	0	0
Brigadier General	321	8	6
Field Officer	88	4	8
Captain —	30	8	1
Subaltern —	18	15	7
Serjeant —	1	9	5
Corporal —	1	2	6
Private ——	0	13	5

14th. A terrible fire broke out at Mr. Naſh's in St. James's ſquare, which inſtantly conſumed that houſe, and damaged two others. The fire ſpread ſo faſt that ſix perſons periſhed in the flames.

16th. The magiſtrates of Finſbury diviſion, attended by the ſeveral officers of Clerkenwell pariſh, went in perſon and ſeized a great number of hogs, kept and fed on dead horſes, diſtempered cattle from the ſlaughter-houſes, &c. In one yard there were at leaſt ten waggon loads of bones of horſes, cows, &c. three dead horſes, and one alive almoſt eat up with diſtempers, brought there to be killed; cows, dead dogs, blood and offals for the hogs. This ſurely makes it neceſſary for perſons of all ranks to be careful of what they eat, as no doubt, people in other parts of the town may be temped, from the high price of meat, to take the ſame method; for this kind of food, it is ſaid, makes hogs much fatter and does it quicker than any other. It is, therefore, hoped, that the magiſtrates every where will be more attentive for the future, to ſtop and prevent a practice, which, beſides being ſo nauſeous in itſelf, cannot fail of being attended with the moſt fatal conſequences to the health and lives of thoſe, whoſe misfortune it may be to touch ſuch unwholeſome food in pork or bacon.

18th. His majeſty went to the houſe of peers, and gave the royal aſſent to the following bills, viz.

The bill for veſting the fort of Senegal, and its dependencies, in the African company.

The bill for aſcertaining and regulating in what caſes letters ſhall be ſent or received, free from the duty of poſtage.

The bill for ſwearing affidavits to be made uſe of, in any courts of the county Palatine of Durham.

The bill for applying the money granted this ſeſſion, for defraying the charge of pay and cloathing of the militia for one year.

The

The bill for charging on the ſinking fund certain annuities, and for conſolidating ſuch of ſaid annuities, as are granted for a certain term of years irredeemable.

The bill for granting, for a limited time, liberty to carry rice from his majeſty's provinces of South Carolina and Georgia to other parts of America, on paying Britiſh duties.

The bill for allowing further time for the inrollment of deeds and wills made by papiſts, and for the relief of proteſtant purchaſers.

The bill for paving, cleanſing, lighting, &c. the ſquares, ſtreets, lanes and alleys, in the city and liberty of Weſtminſter.

The bill for raiſing money by loans or exchequer bills.

The bill for preventing frauds committed by bankrupts, and for extending the laws relating to hackney coaches to the counties of Kent and Eſſex.

The bill for indemnifying perſons who have omitted to take the oaths to qualify themſelves for offices, &c.

The bill for amending and reducing into one act ſeveral laws in being relating to raiſing and training the militia.

The bill for preventing inconveniencies ariſing in caſes of merchants, and ſuch other perſons as are within the ſtatutes of bankrupts, being intitled to privilege of parliament, and becoming inſolvent.

The bill to encourage the cambrick manufacture in England.

The bill for importing ſalt from Europe to Quebec for a limited time.

The bill for granting a bounty upon the importation of hemp, and rough and undreſſed flax, from his majeſty's colonies in America.

The bill for enabling his majeſty, with the advice of his privy council, to order the free importation of proviſions from Ireland during the next receſs of parliament, or as the neceſſity of the time may require.

The bill for continuing ſeveral acts of parliament made for the encouragement of the whale fiſhery carried on by his majeſty's ſubjects, particularly that on the coaſts of America.

The bill for eſtabliſhing an agreement with the governor and company of the bank of England, for raiſing certain ſums of money for the ſervice of the year 1764.

The bill for preventing ſuch paper bills of credit, as may hereafter be iſſued within any of his majeſty's colonies or plantations in America, from being made legal tender in payment of money.

And ſeveral other road and private bills.

After which, his majeſty was pleaſed to make a moſt gracious ſpeech; and the lord chancellor, by his majeſty's command, prorogued the parliament to Thurſday the twenty-firſt day of June following.

19th. A waggon newly invented by Mr. Bourne, with wheels but two feet high, ſo as to go under the body, and ſixteen inches broad, and which had already made

two journeys between Leominſter and London as a ſtage, was tried on the new road, Iſlington, before ſeveral of the gentlemen belonging to the ſociety of arts, &c. againſt a common broad-wheel waggon. Each of them had five tons weight of ſtone, and was drawn by eight horſes, and the two carriages went abreaſt from the new road juſt by Pancras, to within a ſmall diſtance of the dog-houſe bar. On their return they were tried with four horſes each for a little way, when it appeared, that the common broad-wheel waggon had greatly the advantage, and that the four horſes in it did not work ſeemingly harder than the eight in the new-invented one. Mr. Bourne's waggon does not ſeem calculated for roads that are uneven, or for ſteep aſcents; but, on the other hand, by the ſituation of the wheels, it can paſs on narrower roads than the broad-wheel carriages, and can turn in very little ſpace, and without difficulty.

23d. At a chapter of the moſt noble order of the garter held at St. James's, his moſt ſerene highneſs Adolphus Frederic, reigning duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz, and the right honourable the earl of Halifax, were elected in the room of the late earls Granville and Waldegrave. And, next day, his majeſty was pleaſed to fill up the vacant ſtall at Weſtminſter, of the moſt honourable military order of the Bath, by inveſting lord Clive with the ribbon of that order with the uſual ceremonies.

Some days ago forty journeymen taylors were taken out of the Bull-head in Bread-ſtreet by a party of maſter taylors aſſociated to prevent unlawful combinations among them, and confined in Wood-ſtreet compter, on ſuſpicion of their being thoſe, who, refuſing to comply with the maſters terms and the regulations of the magiſtrate, call themſelves *Flints*, in contradiſtinction to thoſe who ſubmit, and are in deriſion ſtiled by the firſt *Dungs*. But on their examination the next day, and hearing council on both ſides, before the ſitting alderman at Guildhall, it appeared that both maſters and jailors had acted illegally, by taking them up and confining them without a warrant; beſides nothing could be alledged againſt many of them. Upon this, therefore, the journeymen, all to three or four with whom the maſters were happy enough to make up matters for a trifle to each, brought actions of falſe impriſonment againſt the maſters, and all of them againſt the jailors. This little affair ſhews how dangerous any, even the leaſt ſhadow of, authority is in low and ignorant hands.

30th. The ſociety of arts have lately given the following premiums.

Fifty pounds to Mr. Harriſon, for a maſterly improvement in the ſpinning wheel, by which a child may do double the buſineſs that even a grown perſon can with the common wheel.

140 guineas to Mr. N. Reid, for a ſtatue of Diana in marble, allowed to be a maſterly performance.

50 guineas to a German artiſt, for a baſs relief of the rape of Caſſandra;

ſandra; and another of 25 guineas to another German for a baſs relief of Hector and Andromache.

50 guineas for the beſt landſcape, to Mr. Barret from Dublin; 25, for the ſecond beſt, to Mr. Bond of Bermingham, 15, for the third beſt, to Mr. Steuart of London.

May we beg leave to recommend to the ſociety premiums, to promote the uſe of Mr. Harriſon's invention; an invention, from which the nation in general, and the poor in particular, may receive ſo great and ſo immediate benefit. It would ſoon increaſe, by one third, perhaps, the number of our moſt uſeful hands.

The German commiſſariate, for receiving the demands of all who had loſt proviſions, horſes, liveries, ſhirts, &c. in the ſervice of the allies, being recalled; a commiſſion of only three perſons was appointed, by and under the controul of the Britiſh treaſury, to deſcend into the detail of thoſe demands. The whole ſum demanded was publicly ſtated at between ſeven and eight millions ſterling; of which the commiſſioners, it is ſaid, have already liquidated 1.354,000l. in the manner following:

Allowed as reaſonable	£. 103,000
Poſtponed till further proofs can be had	263,000
Rejected as unreaſonable	988,000
	1.354,000

Information having been given, that ſeveral of his majeſty's ſubjects have been for a conſiderable time, and are ſtill detained in France as hoſtages for the payment of unſatisfied ranſom bills, notice has been given in the Gazette, that in caſe ſuch ranſom bills are not forthwith diſcharged, proſecutions will be commenced in his majeſty's court of admiralty againſt all maſters, owners, and others, unjuſtly refuſing or neglecting to pay them.

There has been collected in England, on the brief iſſued for the benefit of the colleges of Philadelphia and New-York, excluſive of conſiderable private benefactions, and ſeveral briefs yet outſtanding, no leſs than 9600l. ſterling.

Some time ago, two labouring men, digging ſomewhere in Stow-Langtoft, a village near St. Edmund's Bury, in Suffolk, found an earthen pot full of old Roman coins. The metal is not valuable, for they are all copper; nor are the pieces themſelves remarkably rare. Thoſe that had an opportunity of ſeeing the moſt of them, could not certainly diſtinguiſh more than four ſorts; viz. Victorinus, Poſthumus, Tetricus Aug. and Tetricus Cæſ. But the number was very conſiderable, being 7000, if not more. They were ſold to a man at Bury, for one ſhilling a pound, and at that rate ſold for more than two guineas The purchaſer was content with a moderate profit, for he offered to ſell them at a farthing each, pick and chooſe, or half a crown a pound. Excepting two or three, they were all nearly of the ſame ſize, and what the ancients, it is ſuppoſed, would have called quadrantes, tranſlated in ſome places of the New Teſtament a farthing.

Exports of gold and silver to India.

	gold oz.	silver oz.
From 1753 to 1758.	118,127.	10.556,748
From 1759 to 1764.	9,760.	1.411,116

At Briſtol aſſizes, three were capitally convicted, but were reſpited.

At Cambridge aſſizes, one was capitally convicted.

At Chelmsford aſſizes, two were capitally convicted, but reprieved.

At Coventry aſſizes, a woman was capitally convicted for returning from tranſportation, and for a robbery ſince, but reprieved for a month.

At Cheſter aſſizes, three were capitally convicted.

At Dorſetſhire aſſizes, two were capitally convicted, but were afterwards reprieved.

At Devon aſſizes, ſix were capitally convicted.

At Exeter aſſizes, ſeven were capitally convicted; one for murder.

At Glouceſter aſſizes, three were capitally convicted.

At Hereford aſſizes, five perſons were capitally convicted, four of whom were reprieved.

At Huntingdom aſſizes, a woman was tried on two ſeveral indictments: firſt, for feloniouſly ſhooting at Overman Smith, of which ſhe was acquitted; the ſecond, for unlawfully ſhooting at him, with intent to kill him, of which ſhe was convicted, and ordered to be impriſoned twelve months.

At Hertford aſſizes, one was capitally convicted.

At Kingſton aſſizes, ſix; one for murder.

At Lancaſter aſſizes, three (one of them for pulling down a mill) were capitally convicted, of whom one was reprieved.

At Maidſtone aſſizes, fifteen were capitally convicted; one of them was for a deteſtable crime with an old man of 60, whom he ſtabb'd, robb'd, and afterwards uſed moſt inhumanly. The old man, however, was ſo well recovered as to give evidence againſt the villain, on which he was found guilty. Two were executed. The attendance of the clergyman was diſpenſed with during their confinement after condemnation, on account of a contagious diſtemper raging in that goal.

At the aſſizes at Monmouth, a girl about 18 was burnt for the murder of her miſtreſs.

At Norwich aſſizes, five were capitally convicted.

At Nottingham aſſizes, one was capitally condemned for theft; one for murder was diſcharged, being lunatic, and another for the ſame murder died in the arms of the goaler as he was bringing him to trial.

At Oxford aſſizes, three were capitally convicted. At this aſſizes three young men were tried and caſt for tranſportation, for ſtealing the club-box to which they belonged. In the courſe of this trial a point of law was ſtarted by the priſoners council, touching the property of the money, which by the indictment was veſted in Mr. Galten, in whoſe cuſtody it was from time to time left by the ſociety; and for which they had his note of hand as a ſecurity:

curity: however, upon ſumming up the evidence, Mr. Juſtice Wilmot, with the utmoſt perſpicuity, ſet aſide every objection, and gave it as his opinion, that the ſeveral ſums of money thus accumulated by a ſociety, as their general fund, abſolutely ceaſed to be property of any individual member, and could only be applied to the purpoſes directed by their articles; that the perſon who took upon him the charge of the ſtock, was anſwerable for it to the ſociety, ſince the ſeveral locks could only be conſidered as a kind of check for the ſatisfaction of the ſociety, and he had the ſole cuſtody, of it.—— His lordſhip alſo informed the jury, that, though he had not the leaſt doubt in his own breaſt, he had ſent the council for the priſoners to the other court, to take Mr. baron Adams's opinion, without imparting his own; and that baron Adams was likewiſe clear in the ſame ſentiments with himſelf. His lordſhip alſo enumerated many caſes wherein a man's privately taking away what was indiſputably his own property, is felonious: for inſtance, things pawned; cloaths left with a taylor to make up; goods delivered to a carrier, &c.

At Reading aſſizes, one for murder was executed.

At Shrewſbury aſſizes, five were capitally convicted.

At Saliſbury aſſizes, two were capitally convicted, but reprieved. At this aſſizes one Henry Timbrell, an old fellow, was tried for caſtrating his two apprentices, the one aged eight, the other ſixteen. He could not be convicted on the Coventry act, as *lying in wait* could not be proved; he was therefore found guilty of a miſdemeanor, ſentenced to four years impriſonment, fined 20 s. 8 d. and to find ſecurity for his good behaviour. This ſentence was deemed by the female part of the mob ſo inadequate to his crime, that all the conſtables of the city, the javelin-men, and, in ſhort, the whole civil power, were ſcarce ſufficient to protect him from their rage.

At Stafford aſſizes, four were capitally convicted, but two were reprieved.

At Wincheſter aſſizes, four.

At Warwick aſſizes, five, but four of them reprieved.

At York aſſizes, two were capitally convicted. At this aſſizes came on to be tried before the hon. Mr. baron Smythe, and a ſpecial jury of gentlemen of the county, a cauſe, wherein Thomas Broadly, of Hull, eſq; (on behalf of the king and himſelf) was plaintiff, and William Keeling, and others, defendants, being an action of debt, brought on the ſtatute of the 32d of Henry VIII. with a view to ſuppreſs the practice of buying pretended titles contrary to the ſaid ſtatute; when the jury, without going out of court, found a verdict for the plaintiff for 800 l. being the value of the lands proved upon the trial to be ſo bought by the defendants. Alſo, before a ſpecial jury, a cauſe, wherein William Lewis, brewer, of York, was plaintiff, and the inhabitants of the hundred of Ouſe and Darwent, in the Eaſt-riding, defendants; when a verdict was given for the plantiff of 200 l. part of the money he had been robbed

of in that hundred, which was all he could recover; no perſon being in company with him at the time the robbery was committed.

The magiſtrates of Edinburgh, with the committee of the convention of royal boroughs, have cauſed a repreſentation to be drawn up in order to be preſented to his majeſty in council; that his majeſty would be graciouſly pleaſed to revoke the licence given to the recruiting officers of the Scotch regiment in the Dutch ſervice, to levy men in Scotland, on account of the ſcarcity of hands there for the neceſſary purpoſes of agriculture and manufactures.

Report of the ſtate of the city hoſpitals, for one year, ending the 23d inſtant.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW'S.

Cured and diſcharged from this hoſpital — —	3371
Truſſes given by a private hand to — —	15
Truſſes given by the hoſpital to — —	20
Buried this year —	341
Remaining under cure —	400
Out-patients —	135
In all, including out-patients — —	8352

ST. THOMAS'S HOSPITAL.

Cured and diſcharged from this hoſpital —	6853
Buried this year —	292
Remaining under cure	473
Out-patients — —	194
Total, including out-patients — —	7812

CHRIST'S HOSPITAL.

Children put forth apprentices, and diſcharged out of this hoſpital laſt year, ten whereof were inſtructed in the mathematics — — —	144
Buried the laſt year —	11
Remaining in this hoſpital — —	991

BRIDEWELL HOSPITAL.

Vagrants, &c. relieved and diſcharged — —	336
Maintained in ſeveral trades, &c. — —	69

BETHLEHEM HOSPITAL.

Admitted into this hoſpital — —	222
Cured — —	129
Buried — —	57
Remaining under cure	267

It may be of ſome ſervice to the poor, that our readers ſhould know the terms, upon which patients are admitted into the ſeveral hoſpitals in and about London. They are theſe:

Saint Bartholomew's. Money advanced to bury the patient in caſe of death, and a governor's order.

Saint Thomas's. Security to bury the patient in caſe of death, but without a governor's order; a fee of ſixpence to the ſteward for a petition.

Saint Auſtin's. The ſame as at St. Thomas's; but takes in only very bad caſes.

London hoſpital. A governor's order.

Middleſex hoſpital. A governor's order, and a ſtrict examination concerning the pariſh of women coming to lie in there.

Saint George's hoſpital. A governor's

vernor's order. No body is admitted to ſee the patients on Sundays.

Weſtminſter hoſpital. A governor's order.

Many objections have been made to the above rules and reſtrictions, but probably with no great reaſon, as the intention of the governors cannot but be to do as much good as their limited funds will admit, and with as little prejudice as poſſible to the pariſhes in which the hoſpitals are ſituated. It were, indeed, to be wiſhed, that all, who ſtand in need of thoſe charities, could be received, and that immediately. The good have a right to ſome relief of this kind. The bad may be reclaimed by it. Two of the principal objections to an indiſcriminate and immediate reception, viz. the want of room and want of beds, may be obviated by frequent ventilation, and the uſe of ſtraw inſtead of flocks and feathers, as ſtraw may be much more readily changed, and at leſs expence, than feathers or flocks, and be freed from the infection which they are liable to receive more or leſs from every ſick perſon lying upon them.

As ſeveral labourers were lately digging in a field near Xanten in the duchy of Cleves, which in ancient times was a Roman camp, one of their ſpades ſtruck againſt a hard ſubſtance, which upon farther enquiry appeared to be an urn, full of gold and other pieces, which the labourers immediately divided among them. The urn has diſappeared, and has not yet been found. It is ſuppoſed to be of copper, or of ſome compoſition reſembling that metal, as the pieces that lay next the ſide of it are ſomewhat diſcoloured. The gold pieces were 1,800 in number, well preſerved, and each of them weighs near 20 grains more than a ducat. There are all the emperors from Conſtantine to the laſt Valentinian; ſome of the uſurper Eugene, and of the tyrant John de Ravenne, and the connoiſſeurs know how ſcarce they are even in Italy. There are ſome, but very few, of the empreſſes Galla-Placidia and Elia-Eudoxia, which are likewiſe very ſcarce. They repreſent, reſpectively, the buſts of thoſe emperors and empreſſes on the one ſide, while the reverſe contains devices and inſcriptions, that are much admired by the lovers of ancient remains. —His Pruſſian majeſty has laid claim to this treaſure, and has actually recover'd 600 of the pieces.

Peterſburg, March 6. They have brought here from the mines in Siberia, 13,200 pounds weight of ſilver, and 990 pounds of gold, which has been collected this laſt year. The produce of the year 1762 was not ſo conſiderable; but the miners aſſure us, that the labours of the preſent year will be ſtill more advantageous. Accounts have been ſince received, that a mine of virgin quickſilver has been accidentally diſcovered in the ſame country, and that diſpoſitions were making to work it.

Philadelphia, Jan. 1ſt. 1764. On the 14th of laſt month, about ſixty men from the frontier townſhips, provoked, it ſeems, by the protection afforded by our government to ſome Indians who,

they pretend, had deſtroyed their ſubſtance, and butchered many of their family and friends, whilſt they themſelves were refuſed any aſſiſtance againſt their depredations, or any ſhelter after them, came, all well mounted, and armed with firelocks, hangers, and hatchets, having travelled through the country in the night, to Coneſtogoe manor; and at day break ruſhing into a village of Indians, who had been ſettled among the Engliſh ſince their firſt landing, and always lived in the greateſt friendſhip and harmony with them, out of twenty Indians, of which the village conſiſted, butchered ſix, being all they found at home; after which they ſet their huts on fire.

Upon this the magiſtrates of Lancaſter ſent out to collect the remaining Indians, brought them into the town for their better ſecurity againſt any farther attempt; condoled with them on the misfortune that had happened, promiſed them protection; and put them into the workhouſe, a ſtrong building, as a place of the greateſt ſafety.

When the ſhocking news arrived in town, a proclamation was iſſued by the governor, requiring all magiſtrates and officers to do their utmoſt to diſcover and ſecure the murderers; and forbidding all perſons to injure any Indians in the province.

Notwithſtanding this proclamation, thoſe cruel men again aſſembled themſelves, and hearing that the remaining fourteen Indians were in the workhouſe at Lancaſter, they ſuddenly appeared in that town, on the 27th of December; when fifty of them, armed as before, diſmounting, went directly to the workhouſe, and by violence broke open the door, and entered with the utmoſt fury in their countenances.—When the poor wretches ſaw that they had no protection nigh, nor could poſſibly eſcape, and being without the leaſt weapon for defence, they divided into their little families, the children clinging to the parents; they fell on their knees, proteſted their ignorance, declared their love to the Engliſh, and that, in their whole lives, they had never done them injury; and in this poſture they all received the hatchet!——Another proclamation has been iſſued, offering a great reward for apprehening the murderers.

But theſe proclamations have as yet produced no diſcovery; the murderers having given out ſuch threatenings againſt thoſe that diſapprove their proceedings, that the whole country ſeems to be in the utmoſt terror, no one daaing to ſpeak what he knows; even the letters from thence, in which any diſlike is expreſſed of the rioters, come without a name.

Died lately, Peter Nielſon, at Copenhagen, aged 115.

Mrs. Smith, at Hemel Helmſted, aged 100.

M A Y.

4th. The cauſe between Mr. Beardmore and the king's meſſengers was heard before lord chief

chief juſtice Pratt at Guildhall, in the courſe of which it appeared, that Mr. Beardmore had been taken into cuſtody on the 11th of November, for a ſuppoſed connection with the Monitor, and confined till the 17th, two days of which he was debarred the uſe of pen ink and paper, nor permitted to converſe with any of his friends but in the preſence of the meſſenger, ; that, when the lord mayor of London applied to bail him, the officer, whoſe buſineſs it was to examine him, neglected it, alledging, that the Monitors were much too voluminous to be inſpected.

Mr. J. Scott, the former publiſher of the Monitor, to prove the juſtice of Mr. Beardmore's commitment, preſented a paper, ſetting forth, that this gentleman, together with the reverend Mr. Entick, Dr. Shebeare, and others, were the authors; that the two latter had a ſalary of one hundred a year for their writings; and that he (Mr. Scott) was allowed the profits of the ſale for his trouble, after the neceſſary expences were diſcharged.

Such being the groundwork of the charge and defence, the examination of witneſſes, and the pleadings on both ſides, continued two hours; when it appearing, that Mr. Beardmore had ſuffered very conſiderably in being confined ſo long at the beginning of term, when he had a number of important cauſes to conduct; and his principal clerk, who tranſacted the buſineſs in his abſence, being alſo taken up by the ſame warrant, the lord chief juſtice proceeded to give the charge; in which he obſerved, that the ſeizure of Mr. Beardmore's perſon and papers was illegal; and that S—— of S—— ſhould always be particularly careful to hear with their own ears, and ſee with their own eyes. He recommended moderation in the damages, as the meſſengers were nothing but ſervants, and conſequently could not be conſidered as materially culpable in the intent. The jury leſs than an hour brought in their virdict 1000l. damages to Mr. Beardmore.

And, at a hearing ſome weeks after before lord chief juſtice Pratt, and the reſt of the judges of the ſame court, wherein the council for Mr. Beardmore were to ſhew cauſe, why a new trial ſhould not be granted in order to ſet aſide the above verdict, on account of exceſſive damages, after the pleadings of council were heard for two days, the motion was over-ruled, and the verdict eſtabliſhed. Mr. Beardmore, in the courſe of the motion, offered to forego this verdict, in caſe the earl of Halifax would conſent to have the action, then depending between Mr. Beardmore, and his lordſhip and the meſſengers, brought to a trial, and to abide by the damages; but the defendants council, it ſeems, had no authority to conſent to ſuch propoſal.

Upon the determination of the jury, there was an univerſal ſhout from a conſiderable number of ſpectators. The council for the defendants were, the attorney and ſollicitor general, Meſſrs. ſerjeants Davy, and Nares, and Mr. Wallis; and for the plaintiff, Mr. ſerjeant

ſerjeant Glynn, the recorder of London, Mr. Stow, Mr. Dunning, and Mr. Gardner.

The ſociety of arts are come to a reſolution to give none but honorary premiums to any of their members, in order to avoid all ſuſpicion of partiality in their deciſions.

A meſſenger, who did not ſet out from London till the day before yeſterday at two in the afternoon, landed at eleven this night at St. George's Quay, Dublin; a very extraordinary inſtance of quick travelling.

His ſerene highneſs the queen's youngeſt brother is now in England, and has been to viſit the univerſities of Cambridge and Oxford, where he was received with all the honours due to his high rank, and his near relation to their majeſties.

5th. Ended the ſeſſions at the Old Bailey, at which twelve criminals received ſentence of death, viz. four for burglaries, five for highway and foot robberies, one for ſtealing a cow, one for returning from tranſportation, and one for forgery. Of theſe one died in priſon, ſeven ſuffered ſoon after, and the reſt were reprieved for tranſportation. Among theſe reprieved for tranſportation was the unhappy youth caſt for forgery, who obtained mercy in conſideration of his having greatly contributed to ſave a ſhip overtaken by a dreadful ſtorm laſt winter, in her paſſage from Park-gate to Dublin, with two hundred perſons on board, and a rich cargo. Thirty-four were ſentenced to tranſportation for ſeven years, three for fourteen, one to be publicly and ſeven privately whipt, and one was burnt in the hand.

The criminal condemned for returning from tranſportation at this ſeſſions, and afterwards executed, addreſſed himſelf to the populace at Tyburn, and told them he could wiſh they would carry his body, and lay it at the door of Mr. Parker, a butcher in the Minories, who, it ſeems, was the principal evidence againſt him; which being accordingly done, the mob behaved ſo riotouſly before the man's houſe, that it was no eaſy matter to diſperſe them.

At this ſeſſions were likewiſe tried four chairmen, for forcibly breaking into the Morocco ambaſſador's houſe, with a large mob at their heels, and there violently attacking the ambaſſador himſelf, on pretence that he kept one of their wives from her huſband. But through the great lenity, it is imagined, of his excellency, they had all the good fortune to be acquitted.

10th. At the rehearſal and feaſt of the ſons of the clergy, 9321. 7s. 3d. was collected for that charity.

11th. A great diſturbance was created at Ranelagh-houſe, by the coachmen, footmen, &c. belonging to ſuch of the nobility and gentry as will not ſuffer their ſervants to take vails. They began by hiſſing their maſters, they then broke all the lamps and outſide windows with ſtones; and afterwards putting out their flambeaux, pelted the company, in a moſt audacious manner, with brick-bats, &c. whereby ſeveral were greatly hurt, ſo as to render the uſe of ſwords neceſſary.

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In the ſcuffle one of the ſervants was run through his thigh, another through his arm, and ſeveral more otherwiſe wounded. Four of them were ſeized, and being carried before the juſtices, one was committed to Newgate; one diſcharged by his maſter and bound to his good behaviour; one ſet at liberty on his aſking pardon, and promiſing to diſcover his accomplices; and one diſcharged, no perſon appearing againſt him.

14th. A cauſe, of great conſequence to the inſurers, was heard before lord chief juſtice Pratt, between the owners of the brig George of Liverpool, plaintiffs, and the under-writers of a policy of inſurance upon her, with convoy, defendants. The point in queſtion was, whether voluntarily leaving convoy, and not coming to the uſual places of rendezvous, be a ſufficient plea for the inſurers to withhold the benefit of the policy; which being determined in the affirmative; and it being likewiſe proved, that the captain of the George did voluntarily leave the convoy, and did not rendezvous at the appointed place, but was taken out of that courſe; the jury, which was ſpecial, gave a verdict for the defendants, with full coſts of ſuit.

15th. A gentleman of fortune, in the city, was on the point of loſing his only child by the overpowering ſcent of ſeveral jars filled with flowers, which ſhe had placed in her bed-chamber. She awaked almoſt ſuffocated, and unable to ſpeak for ſome time, and found the ſervant, who lay on a couch near her, alſo awake, and in the ſame condition; the violent ſmell of ſo many flowers having filled the room with a faint vapour, which was inſupportable. The ſervant, at laſt, with great difficulty, and after many efforts, rouſed up ſtrength ſufficient to crawl towards the jars and put them out of the room, which being filled with freſh air by the opening of the door, ſhe, and her miſtreſs now almoſt expiring, ſoon recovered. Something like this is ſaid to have lately happened at Wittemberg.

16th. At the anniverſary feaſt and ſermon for the benefit of the Aſylum, 180l. odd was collected for the benefit of that charity.

17th. His excellency the lord lieutenant of Ireland, having put an end to the ſeſſions of parliament there on the 12th, arrived with his counteſs from Ireland. Soon after they waited on their majeſties, and were moſt graciouſly received.

The cordwainers company heard a ſermon at St. Dunſtan's in the Weſt, and afterwards dined together, purſuant to the will of Mr. Fiſher, who having been ſometimes invited to their feaſts, left them in return an eſtate, on condition of hearing annually a ſermon, drinking ſack in the church to his memory, giving a certain ſum to the poor, treating their tenants, and dining jovially together.

22d. Came on before lord chief juſtice Mansfield, at Weſtminſter hall, the trial of Philip Carteret Webb, eſq; ſolicitor to the Treaſury, for perjury, when the

the jury, which was a ſpecial one, after an abſence of half an hour, brought in their verdict, Not Guilty.

In conſequence of the prudent meaſures now taking by the lords of the admiralty, the ſtate of the Britiſh navy is in a way of being vaſtly ſuperior to what it has ever as yet been. Excluſive of a thorough ſurvey of all his majeſty's ſhips of war, contracts have been entered iuto with every province, iſland, and ſettlement in America, for ſupplying ſuch men of war as may touch there with proviſions, rigging, and all manner of naval ſtores, on any emergency; ſo that, there being contracts of the ſame kind in moſt foreign ſtates of Europe, let a king's ſhip put in any where, ſhe is ſure of being immediately provided with every thing ſhe can want.

A table ſpoon and a ſmall ſpoon having been lately miſſed from a public houſe at Limehouſe, a ſervant girl was taken into cuſtody on ſuſpicion of ſtealing the ſame; but the third day after her confinement, a raven was ſeen to carry a tea-ſpoon to the bottom of the ground, and bury it in a lay-ſtall, where, upon digging, all three were found with ſome ſhillings and halfpence, on which the girl was diſcharged.

At a late foot-race on the Deptford road by two tanners, the winner ran nine miles in an hour and four minutes.

There has been lately executed at York a newly invented ſeed plough, firm, but not heavy, going on two wheels, to be drawn by one or two horſes occaſionally, which makes three ſeed-furrows at once, at any diſtance from each other, and ſows any ſort of ſeed, and covers it at the ſame time with great expedition and exactneſs.

A playhouſe has been lately built at Glaſgow, but has already been diſapproved of by the preſbytery there; and the miniſters in general have been inſtructed to diſſuade their hearers from frequenting it, as prejudicial to the intereſts of piety and virtue.

The citizens of Cork have placed a fine white marble ſtatue of Mr. Pitt, as big as life, in a niche in their Exchange, with the following inſcriptions:

"In honour of Mr. Pitt, late ſecretary and miniſter of ſtate to their majeſties king George II. and III. of Great Britain, who, in the few years of his able and upright adminiſtration, reſtored the honour of the Britiſh arms, together with the ſafety, influence, and glory of his king and country, this ſtatue is erected by the citizens of Corke, Anno 1764." This is on one plate. On another is the following; "*Siſte viator ubicunque terrarum oriundus. Vera Icon* GULIELMI PITT, *cujus ſi nomen audies, nihil hic de fama deſideres.*"

The preſent grand topic of diſcourſe at the Hague, is the wonderful feats of one Mr. Gilbert Gilbert, who was a cannoneer in the ſervice of the republic, and had the misfortune to loſe both his arms. This gentleman has been furniſhed, by the chevalier de Laurent, a French engineer, with two artificial arms fixed to his ſtumps, with which he is able to carry a glaſs of wine to his head, uſe his knife and fork, take ſnuff,

ſnuff, and write. All this he has done in the preſence of the ſtadtholder and the great council. He has been ſince invited to Utrecht, and is viſited there at his apartment by perſons of the firſt diſtinction, all of whom applaud extremely this wonderful and uſeful piece of mechaniſm.

The magiſtrates of Francfort on the Mayne, at the requeſt of the king of Pruſſia, have permitted the inhabitants profeſſing the reformed religion to build a church near the ramparts of that city.

The practice of rocking children to ſleep has been lately exploded in Germany. This motion, ſays a learned phyſician, muſt injure the delicate texture of their brain, ſpoil their digeſtion, turn the milk in their ſtomachs, make them ſqueamiſh, and occaſion many diſorders in the bowels, to which, therefore, it is no wonder children are now ſo ſubject.

A curious medal has lately been ſtruck at Stockholm, in honour of inoculation; it repreſents an altar of Æſculapius, with a ſerpent twiſted round it; the motto, SUBLATO JURE NOCENDI.

Paris, May 11. The court of England having conſented to communicate to our's the different records and inſtruments concerning the rights, domains, and poſſeſſions of the crown, which are in the archives of the exchequer, the king has nominated M. de Brequigney, of the royal academy of belles-lettres, to go to take copies of them, and he is accordingly ſet out for that purpoſe.

Four pieces of cannon, lately fiſhed up in La Hogue road, were found covered with a thick incruſtation of mud, under which the metal was at firſt as impreſſible as pewter, but being expoſed to the action of the air for twenty-four hours, it hardened again ſo as to bear the ſtrongeſt proofs.

The ſubject of the prize propoſed by our academy of ſciences for 1765, is, what were the exterior marks, ornaments, and apparel of royalty among the Egyptians? And what the ſtate of the Egyptian army, their rank, cloathing, arms, and exerciſe?

That for 1766, is to explain the cauſe of the inequalities obſerved in the movements and nodes of the orbits of Jupiter's ſatellites.

Berlin, May 11th. The king is indefatigable in his attention to the welfare of his ſubjects. A new regulation is made concerning the ſchools, which is eſteemed a maſter piece. The edict on the obſervation of the ſabbath is renewed, whereby working, diverſion in carriages, or on the water, and frequenting public houſes on Sundays and holidays, are forbidden under the ſevereſt penalties. The juſtices of the peace are once a month to give an account of the behaviour of the inhabitants, to be ſigned by the miniſter of the place, which is to be tranſmitted to the chamber of war and domains, who are to lay it before the king.

M. Gleditch has lately preſented to the royal academy his obſervations upon the artificial method of increaſing the fœcundity of ſalmon and trouts, invented by Mr. Jacobi. This ſecret conſiſts in taking the males and females of each ſort, until the one diſcharges the melt,

melt, and the other the roe, both of which are to be mingled together, and thrown into the fish-pond. This operation may be repeated several times in a year, and at each time may be performed six days successively on the same fish.

M. Castillion has laid before the same academy an authentic account received from Surinam, of a negro, perfectly white, born of a father and mother of the blackest hue; as also an account of a whole family of negroes, not far from the town of Parimaribo, born with four fingers without a thumb, and whose feet assume, where the toes usually begin, the form of a lobster's claw.

One Healyer, a taylor, at Tiverton, near Bath, above 90 years of age, has cut five teeth within this fortnight; and it is imagined he will have a complete set in less than a month, as he cuts them with pain.

Died lately. Mendez da Costa, esq; an eminent Jew merchant, who annually allotted 3000l. the amount of his commissions, to private charity, and by a codicil to his will has ordered it to be continued by his executors during the lives of those indigent families who heretofore shared his bounty. He has besides ordered that all private bonds in his hands at the time of his death, with their securities, should be immediately destroyed, on this generous principle, that those who borrowed must be in want. This gentleman's charities were not confined to any country or religion.

John Rogers, a Chelsea pensioner, aged 103.

Robert Maber, of Frampton in Dorsetshire, aged 104.

Margaret Cooper, of Deskie in Scotland, aged 105.

Mrs. Edwards of Tooting, aged 108.

Faith Ginger, of Wingrave, Bucks, aged 108.

Mr. Brett, of Mallow in Ireland, aged 115.

Mrs. Taylor, of Piccadilly, aged 131.

In the island of Funen, belonging to the king of Denmark, a man at the still more extraordinary age of 141 years, wanting three days.

JUNE.

Mr. Arnold of Devereux court in the Strand, watch-maker, had the honour to present his majesty with a most curious repeating watch of his own constructing, set in a ring, of which the following are the particulars. 4th.

The movement complete is 2 dwts. 2 grs. and an 8th of a grain.
Great wheel and fuzee, 2 gr. 3-4ths.
Second wheel and pinion, 3-4ths of a gr.
Barrel and main spring, 3 gr. and an half.
Third wheel and pinion, a 9th part of a gr.
Fourth wheel and pinion, a 10th part of a gr.
Cylinder wheel and pinion, a 16th part of a gr.
Balance, pendulum, cylinder spring and collet, 2-3ds of a gr.
The pendulum spring, 300th part of a gr.
The chain, 1-half of a gr.
Barrel and main spring, 1 gr. and 3 qrs.
Great wheel and rotchet, 1 gr.
Second wheel and pinion, 7th part of a gr.

Third wheel and pinion, 8th part of a gr.
Fourth wheel and pinion, 9th part of a gr.
Fly wheel and pinion, 17th of a gr.
Fly pinion, 20th part of a gr.
Hour hammer, 1-half of a gr.
Quarter hammer, 1-half of a gr.
Rack, chain, and pully, 1 gr. and 1-3d.
Quarter and half quarter rack, 2-3ds of a gr.
The quarter and half quarter ſnail and cannon pinion, 2-3ds of a gr.
The all or nothing piece, 1-half of a gr.
Two motion wheels, 1 gr.
Steel dial plate with gold figures, 3 grs. and a half.
The hour ſnail and ſtar, 1-half of a gr. and the 16th part of a gr.

The ſize of the watch is ſomething leſs than a ſilver two-pence; it contains one hundred and twenty different parts, and all together weigh no more than 5 dwts. 7 grs. and 3-4ths.

Some time ago the royal academy of Paris was preſented with a repeating clock, which ſtrikes the hours and quarters, with only a ſingle ſtriking wheel; the inventor rejecting two thirds of the pieces contained in the ſtriking part of the ordinary repetition clocks. And his moſt chriſtian majeſty has been ſince preſented by Mr. Coupſon, jun. a watchmaker of Paris, with a new watch of his invention, compoſed of five wheels, like common watches; but the author has ſubſtituted for the barrel, the grand ſpring, the chain, and the fuſee, a ſimple ſpring, which alone produces the ſame effect as do thoſe different pieces, and without the inconveniencies attending them. It requires no winding up, but may be ſet in motion for twenty-four hours by a puſh, juſt as the ſtriking ſprings of common repeating watches are wound up.

Some grand illuminations deſigned by the earl and counteſs of Northumberland as a compliment to his majeſty's birth-day, were exhibited this evening; the garden was decorated with 10,000 lamps, and 400 were fixed to the balluſtrades deſcending by the ſteps, which had a moſt beautiful effect; two bands of muſic were provided, one in the great gallery, which was illuminated with an aſtoniſhing degree of ſplendor; the other in the garden; each anſwered the other alternately. The company conſiſted of fifteen hundred perſons of the firſt diſtinction.

A remarkable cauſe was tried before lord chief juſtice Mansfield, in which Charles Darley was plaintiff, and a captain of one of his majeſty's frigates defendant. The cauſe of action was the defendant's neglecting to rate the plaintiff as quarter-maſter on board the ſaid frigate, by which neglect he was excluded from ſharing prize money in the Hermione, in the proportion he ought to have done. He obtained a verdict in his favour with 500 l. damages. 5th.

A cauſe came on, in the court of common pleas, Weſtminſter-hall, before lord chief juſtice Pratt, wherein Mr. Blackſtone of Covent-garden was plaintiff, and one of thoſe young gentlemen ſtiled Bucks defendant, for aſſaulting Mr. Blackſtone in his own ſhop; when, after two or three evidences were examined, the defendant, by his council, offered to aſk pardon in the open court, and pay coſts: It was then aſked Mr. Black- 8th.

Blackſtone, if that would be making him ſatisfaction.—But as the outrage was ſo great, and attended with bad conſequences to Mr. Blackſtone wife, he told the court, that he came there as an Engliſhman, and was deſirous it might be made appear that our laws were made to protect the innocent, and puniſh the guilty, and that he, therefore, choſe to ſubmit his cauſe to the verdict of his twelve countrymen, the jury. Accordingly, after the charge was given by the judge, the jury, which was ſpecial, withdrew for about ten minutes, and brought in a verdict of 200 l. damages, with coſts.

9th. The galleon Santiſſima Trinidade, from the Eaſt Indies, arrived in Plymouth road. She is the largeſt and richeſt ſhip ever brought into the ports of England. She was loaded at Madraſs with a vaſt collection made by governor Pigot of foreign curioſities, particularly wild beaſts, moſt of which died in the paſſage, it being ſo very long, and the ſhip ſo very labourſome. One of thoſe which has ſurvived is a ſerpent, which is, it is ſaid, fourteen feet long, eats only once a month, and then changes its ſkin, and, as ſome ſay, is quite harmleſs.

The ſociety for the encouragement of arts, &c. have lately beſtowed the following premiums, viz.

30 guineas to Mr. Keyſe, an eminent painter in Fleet-ſtreet, for the diſcovery of a method to fix crayons, ſo as to ſtand even a ſevere rubbing of ſoap and water.

10 guineas to one Mr. Ringroſe, for a new improvement in agriculture.

10 guineas to a gentlewoman, for an improvement in manufactures, by finiſhing a piece of lace in a very elegant manner with knitting needles.

11th. Ended the ſeſſions at the Old Bailey, when one malefactor received ſentence of death for murder, one for perſonating a ſailor in order to receive his wages, and three for other crimes. The murderer and two others were executed. Thirty-five to be tranſported for ſeven years, and one to be whipped. Three were branded.

18th. Happened in and about London one of the greateſt thunder ſtorms in the memory of man. Some buildings ſuffered by it, particularly the elegant ſpire of St. Bride's, Fleet-ſtreet, which was ſhattered ſo much, that it was obliged to be rebuilt. Several balls of fire were ſeen in the ſtreets at the ſame time, but ſoon diſappeared without doing any miſchief. Some perſons, however, were hurt by the ſtones that flew from the damaged buildings. At Chatham the lightning killed one man, hurt ſome others, and, had it not been for a heavy rain that attended it, would probably have ſet the Ramillies man of war on fire. In London there was no rain till the lightning was over.

21ſt. A conſtable attempting to execute, in the court yard of a foreign miniſter, a warrant againſt one of his domeſtics for a breach of the peace, was ſome time confined in the miniſter's houſe, but had ſatisfaction made him; and the domeſtic was delivered up to the civil power, to be dealt with according to law.

Was executed at Guildhall, before Mr. Bennet, ſecondary of Wood-ſtreet compter, a writ of inquiry of damages, in an action of treſpaſs, wherein Meſſ. Wilſon

and Fell, two bookſellers in Paternoſter-row, ſome time ſince impriſoned for printing ſome numbers of the Monitor, were plaintiffs, and three of his majeſty's meſſengers defendants; when, after many learned arguments by the council on both ſides, the jury, to compoſe which one perſon was ſummoned out of each ward in this city, withdrew, and in about forty minutes brought in the damages at 600 l.

The fourteen journeymen printers, who ſome months ago obtained a verdict againſt the king's meſſengers for falſe impriſonment, on account of the North Briton, N° 45. were prevailed on to accept their money of Meſſ. Nathan Carrington and R. Blackmore, two meſſengers, in manner following: thirteen of them, who had 200 l. coſts and damages decreed them, accepted 120 l. each, and one of them, who had 300 l. decreed him, accepted 175 l. and all agreed to pay their own coſts.

23d. A violent ſtorm of hail, rain, thunder, and lightening, did immenſe damage in Middleſex, Berkſhire, Wilts, Yorkſhire, Durham, Oxfordſhire, Glouceſterſhire, Eſſex, Bucks, Worceſterſhire, Hants, &c. to the buildings and fruits of the earth, and ſeveral lives were loſt thereby. The hail ſtones in ſome places were an inch and a quarter long, three quarters of an inch broad, and half an inch thick. The damage ſuſtained in Berkſhire alone is eſtimated at 20,000 l. This ſtorm was likewiſe ſeverely felt at Doway in France, where the hail ſtones were as big as hens eggs, and did proportionable miſchief. At Heidelberg it was ſtill more dreadful, and the lightning ſet fire to the electoral palace, great part of which was conſumed.

The king has lately received a letter written with the emperor of Morocco's own hand, inſiſting, it is ſaid, that a ſhip belonging to Marſh Holud, brother to the dey of Algiers, having been caſt away on the Britiſh coaſt, and the cargo loſt, the whole value of the ſaid cargo ſhould be made good to the ſufferers.

25th. Mr. and Mrs. Liddal, at the Green Dragon at Harrowgate, took the ſtitch of bacon oath at Donmow in Kent, taken notice of by the Spectator; when the gentlemen of the neighbourhood, to celebrate ſo unuſual an inſtance of conjugal felicity, ſent in each ſome elegant or plentiful diſh, and all dined together in the houſe of the happy couple.

27th. The court of common pleas was moved to increaſe iſſues, on the return of the diſtringas iſſued at the ſuit of Mr. Beardmore's clerk againſt the earl of Halifax, when the court was pleaſed to order 500 l. iſſues on the alias diſtringas; it appearing by affidavit, that, though this action had been commenced for near twelve months, no appearance had yet been entered for the defendant.

30th. The executors of Jennix Dry, eſq; have paid the treaſurers of St. Thomas's, St. Bartholomew's, St. Luke's, and the London hoſpitals, and likewiſe thoſe of the London work-houſe, 200 l. to each, purſuant to the will of the deceaſed, being a part only of the teſtator's perſonal eſtate, which he bequeathed wholly to the uſe of the ſaid hoſpitals, and work-houſe.

And the executors of the late Dr. Oſbaldiſton, biſhop of London, have paid into the hands of the treaſurer of the ſociety for propagating the goſpel in foreign parts, the ſum of 500l. bequeathed to them by his lordſhip; who has alſo left 200 l. for the relief of poor clergymen's widows, and 1000 l. for repairing the epiſcopal palace at Fulham.

A ſmall piece of ground in Piccadilly, bought ſome years ago when a field for 30 l. by a brewer, as a waſte place to put his butts in, &c. was lately ſold for the benefit of his ſon, an orphan, for the ſum of 2500 l. ſo greatly is that part of the town improved even in the memory of man.

In the courſe of this month there arrived various accounts of our logwood cutters in the bay of Honduras having been not only diſturbed in their buſineſs, but ordered to remove ſuddenly from their uſual places of ſettlement, on pretence of their having nothing to prove their being ſubjects to his Britannic majeſty; and, granting they were, that they had roved too freely about the country, gathering the fruits of it as if it belonged to them. Theſe proceedings were made an ample fund of declamation by the party writers, who failed not to repreſent them in lights no way favourable to the wiſdom of our own, or the ſincerity of the Spaniſh court; whereas, by two articles in the London Gazette it is probable, that the whole was owing to too great attention to forms in the Spaniſh commanders in that part of the world, and too little, perhaps, in our logwood cutters, neither of which, if we conſider the characters of the parties, can be any matter of ſurpriſe. The articles above referred to are as follows: St. James's, July 21. In anſwer to the repreſentations made by his majeſty's ambaſſador at the court of Madrid, upon the late tranſactions of their governor of Jucatan, and his proceedings towards the Britiſh ſubjects employed in cutting logwood in the bay of Honduras, the Spaniſh miniſtry have replied, that they have not received any advices from that governor relative to this affair; but that is it certain the catholic king has given poſitive orders to his governor of Jucatan to abide by, and obſerve the XVIIth article of the laſt treaty of peace, and that he will not approve of the conduct of his ſubjects who act in contravention to it. That it is the intention of his catholic majeſty, that no one ſhall impede the Engliſh in their cutting logwood in the ſtipulated places; and he will diſapprove of his governors and miniſters, whenever they act to the contrary; and renew the moſt ſtrict orders to that effect. St. James's, Sept. 28. Laſt night one of his majeſty's meſſengers arrived from Madrid, with diſpatches from his majeſty's ambaſſador at that court, tranſmitting a duplicate of the orders, which, in conſequence of his excellency's late remonſtrances, that court has diſpatched to don Felipe Ramirez de Eſtenoz, governor of Jucatan: In which orders his catholic majeſty diſapproves the proceedings of the ſaid governor, with reſpect to his majeſty's ſubjects in the bay of Honduras; expreſſes his deſire of giving his majeſty the greateſt proofs of his friendſhip, and of pre-

preſerving peace with the Britiſh nation; and commands the ſaid governor to re-eſtabliſh the Britiſh logwood cutters in the ſeveral places from which he had obliged them to retire, and to let them know, that they may return to their occupation of cutting logwood, without being diſquieted or diſturbed under any pretence whatſoever.

The beginning of this year a terrible famine broke out in ſeveral parts of Italy, particularly the kingdom of Naples, and the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, and was followed by a great mortality, particularly in the former, owing more to the uſe of bad corn ſent them from other countries, than even the want of good corn, inſomuch that, by the advice of the phyſicians, vaſt quantities of it were thrown into the ſea at ſome leagues from Naples, it being ſo far gone as to occaſion a fatal and infectious diſorder even amongſt the poultry, who partook of it. On this occaſion, the king of Spain ſhewed great tenderneſs for his former ſubjects, ſending them wheat, flour, and biſcuit, to anſwer their moſt preſſing wants; and the pope gave leave, with the advice of the cardinals, to take out of the caſtle of St. Angelo 300,000 crowns, part of the vaſt treaſure depoſited there by Sixtus Quintus, to be touched only in the moſt preſſing exigences. The corn imported into the kingdom of Naples alone, on this occaſion, is ſaid to have amounted to cloſe upon thirty thouſand tons; notwithſtanding which there periſhed there upwards of 500,000 ſouls in leſs than ſix months, and a proportionable number in the papal territories. As great part of the corn thrown into the ſea on this melancholy occaſion has been poſitively aſſerted, in letters from Naples, to have been bought up in England, it ſeems, if not proper to vindicate the nation's juſtice, honour, and humanity, by inquiring into paſt frauds in that important trade, at leaſt high time to make ſuch regulations, as may prevent ſuch abuſes for the future.

The laſt Dutch Eaſt India ſhips, which arrived in Holland from Batavia, brought letters from Caſſambazar, giving an account, that in March, 1763, a moſt violent fire happened at Moxudabath, which had reduced that place to aſhes. And that on the 2d of April following there was ſuch a vehement earthquake at Deher or Decca, that it cauſed the water in the river Ganges to riſe twenty feet above its common level, and agitated it in the ſame way as it is at new and full moon. Upwards of 500 veſſels with proviſions, and a great number of people's lives, were loſt; but the moſt ſhocking and diſmal part of the account is, that at Lockepoer, about two days journey from Decca, a circuit of land, near fifteen Engliſh miles in circumference, was ſwallowed up, and all the people and cattle on it were drowned.

Liſbon, June 16. On the 2d inſt. a fire broke out in our cuſtom-houſe, containing to the amount of above half a million ſterling, and the building being of wood, erected in a hurry after the late dreadful earthquake, and little aſſiſtance at hand, it being a holiday, (Holy Thurſday) the flames ſpread ſo rapidly, as to elude all

the efforts made to extinguiſh them. The fire is thought, with the greateſt probability, to have been occaſioned by ſome bales of wet Hamburgh linen heating, and taking fire of themſelves, as ill-ſaved hay is apt to do; notwithſtanding which, and his moſt faithful majeſty's renouncing to all duties and drawbacks upon what was ſaved, the merchants complain loudly, as, ever ſince the running up of this combuſtible edifice, they have paid a duty of four per cent. on all their goods towards building one of more ſolid materials.

Warſaw, June 2. On the 30th ult. the diet declared the inveſtiture of prince Charles of Saxony, in 1758, to the government of Courland, null and void, acknowledged Erneſt John the lawful duke, and reſolved that the ducal dignity ſhould be permanent in the Biron family, as long as it ſhould have male iſſue.

Jamaica, April 10. By orders lately received here for ſwearing in all the men of war's officers on this ſtation, as cuſtom-houſe officers, and by a ſeizure or two made in conſequence thereof, the Spaniards are ſo terrified, that they will not run the riſk of bringing hither either money or mules to traffick with us, ſo that a piſtole is now rarely to be met with; and, in a very ſhort time, this iſland, which always abounded with Spaniſh coin, and remitted ſuch quantities of it to England, will have no other currency than paper money. The Spaniards will very ſoon be ſupplied with linens, woollens, ſilks, cutlery, &c. from the French and Dutch territories, who will probably know how to ſet a true value on this branch of trade, and take care how to keep it.

Philadelphia, April 1. There have been lately warmer diſputes than ever between our governor and aſſembly concerning the proprietary intereſt in this province, particularly the aſſeſſing of located uncultivated lands and lots, within towns and boroughs, belonging to the proprietors. Our governor, agreeable to a decree of his majeſty, is for aſſeſſing theſe lands and lots at the loweſt rate, at which any located uncultivated lands belonging to the inhabitants are aſſeſſed. The aſſembly thinks it unfair to the laſt degree, that the beſt and moſt valuable of the proprietary lands and lots ſhould be taxed no higher than the worſt and leaſt valuable of the people's lands; and, in conſequence of their opinion upon this and other topics in diſpute, have come to ſeveral reſolutions bearing very hard on the proprietary adminiſtration; the laſt of which is:

"As all hope of any degree of happineſs under the proprietary government is, in our opinion, now at an end;

Reſolved, *nem. con.* That this houſe will adjourn, in order to conſult their conſtituents, whether an humble addreſs ſhould be drawn up, and tranſmitted to his majeſty, praying that he would be graciouſly pleaſed to take the people of this province under his immediate protection and government; by completing the agreement heretofore made with the firſt proprietor for the ſale of the government to the crown, or otherwiſe, as to his wiſdom and goodneſs

ness shall seem meet."—— There has been likewise such a misunderstanding between the governor and assembly of South Caroline, as to put an entire stop for some time to all public business in that colony.

There is now living at the quarry-houses near Winlaton, in the parish of Royton, and county of Durham, one Cuthbert Downy, who hath six toes upon each foot, and had six fingers upon one hand, but one was cut off by a surgeon when he was an infant. He is only nine years and three quarters old, yet is four feet four inches high, and, as his parents say, weighs above seven stone. The smallest part of his leg above the ancle is eight inches and three quarters about; under the knee, eleven inches and three quarters; above the knee, twelve inches and seven-eights; the wrist seven inches; and his body, under his coat, below the shoulders, thirty-three inches about. It is not so much his fatness that makes him to be of this size as the largeness of his bones, which resemble those of a middling well-grown man. He is a very fair complexioned, healthy-looking, sprightly boy, and has something very majestic in his countenance, but is a little unwieldy in his walk.

Died lately. The celebrated Count Algarotti, gentleman of the bedchamber to his Prussian majesty, F. R. S. &c. at Pisa. He has bequeathed by his will a very fine picture to the king of Prussia; a porto folio of choice original designs, an engraved stone, and two pictures, to Mr. William Pitt; and a considerable sum to the printing-house at Leghorn, to enable them to proceed with the new edition of his works: he has also devised a legacy to the marquis de Monti, lieut. general of the armies of France; and has left M. Mauro Tessi, a celebrated painter at Bologna, 8000 Roman crowns, 2000 of which he has directed to be laid out in the erection of a mausoleum to his own memory at Pisa. He has given the design of this monument himself, and also left his own epitaph, borrowed from Horace, which is as follows: HIC JACET ALGAROTTIUS, SED NON OMNIS.

JULY.

Came on, by information, the trial of the chevalier M. d'Eon, lately plenipotentiary of the court of France, for a supposed libel against the present French ambassador count de Guerchy, before a special jury of the county of Middlesex, in the king's bench, Westminster; when the defendant, not thinking proper to make any defence, was found guilty. 9th.

This gentleman, at the time of his first coming over to England, was captain of dragoons in the French service, and secretary to the duke de Nivernois, in which character, he behaved so much to the duke's satisfaction, that that nobleman, upon his departure for France, got M. d'Eon appointed minister plenipotentiary in his room.

In a little time after, however, the count de Guerchy being appointed ambassador from the court of Versailles, the chevalier d'Eon received orders, or rather was requested, to act as secretary or assistant

ſiſtant to the new ambaſſador. This, it ſeems, mortified the chevalier to ſuch a degree, that, pretending the letter of recall, which accompanied it, was a forgery, as a correſpondent and intimate friend of his, and an intimate friend likewiſe and neighbour of the French prime miniſter, gave him no notice of it, he abſolutely refuſed to deliver it, and thereby drew on himſelf the cenſure of ours and his own court, as mentioned in our laſt year's chronicle.

Upon this, the chevalier, with a view of exculpating himſelf, or from a motive of revenge, or perhaps both, publiſhed a ſuccinct account of all the negotiations in which he had been engaged, expoſed ſome ſecrets of the French court, and, rather than ſpare his enemies, revealed ſome things greatly to the prejudice of his beſt friends. Among other perſons very freely treated in this publication was the count de Guerchy; and it was this treatment, that drew on him the foregoing proſecution for a libel on his excellency.

It was but natural, that this behaviour ſhould draw on M. d'Eon the reſentment of the court of France, or, at leaſt, that the chevalier ſhould apprehend it. Whether or no, therefore, that court ſollicited his being given up, which is very probable; reports were ſpread, not only that it had done ſo, but even had, on being refuſed, ſent over perſons to kidnap the chevalier, and carry him off by force or fraud, ſince it could not come at him by fair means.

If the chevalier himſelf was not the author of theſe reports, he, at leaſt, credited them ſo far, that he wrote four letters to complain of theſe deſigns againſt him, as known to him by undoubted authority; one to lord chief juſtice Mansfield, another to lord Bute, a third to lord Temple, and a fourth to Mr. Pitt, and to aſk their advice, if, as he contracted no debts, and behaved himſelf in all things as a dutiful ſubject, he might not kill the firſt man who ſhould attempt to arreſt him, ſince he could not conſider ſuch arreſt in any other light than a deſign to kidnap him; weakly alledging, that were the laws to condemn him for ſo doing, which he could not, he ſaid, conceive, the ſpirit of them muſt feel the ſtroke. But if he really knew from undoubted authority, that there was a deſign againſt his perſon, and the villains intruſted with the execution of that deſign, he might eaſily have prevented it, and in a legal way, by an information againſt them.

What became of the chevalier after his trial, is not known. About four months after, a houſe in Scotland-yard was forcibly ranſacked for him, and in doing it a door broke open, by ſix perſons, ſome of them well known, in conſequence, they ſaid, of orders from above; a thing not at all improbable, conſidering into what miſdemeanours, it is reaſonable to think, the chevalier's indiſcretion, and ignorance of our laws, might have betrayed him; miſdemeanours, perhaps, ſufficient to juſtify even more violent proceedings in ſearching for, and apprehending, the perſon guilty of them.

At a houſe at Merryman's Hill, is a young cuckow, but bigger than a grown blackbird, which is ſeveral times a day fed by a robin, 12th.

a robin, that hatched it about five weeks ago; an old cuckow having laid an egg in the robin's neſt. The cuckow is in a cage placed within doors near an open window, at which the robin, which is at large, comes in to feed it, unterrified by the number of perſons who crowd to ſo unuſual a ſight.

Mr. Dun, whom we mentioned in our account of Mr. Wilkes's affair in our laſt volume, has given ſo many and ſuch ſtrong proofs of inſanity in the ſeveral jails where he was confined, in conſequence of his ſuppoſed intention to aſſaſſinate that gentleman, that, the proſecution againſt him being dropt, he was delivered up to his friends, who have provided for him in a private madhouſe.

20th. Came on, in the court of common pleas, Weſtminſter, before the right hon. lord chief juſtice Pratt, a trial, wherein the reverend Mr. Entick was plaintiff, and ſeveral of his majeſty's meſſengers were defendants, in an action againſt the latter, for forcibly entering the ſaid plaintiff's houſe, ſeizing his papers, and keeping him in cuſtody ſeveral days, when, after a trial of four hours, the jury, after being gone out an hour, brought in a verdict of 300 l. damages, with coſts of ſuit.

At Philadelphia, forty minutes paſt ſeven in the evening, about two miles and a half ſouth-weſt of that city, a ball of fire was ſeen near the north-eaſt, about fifty degrees above the horizon. It took its courſe near north-weſt, its diameter at times conſiderably bigger than that of the ſun, eſpecially at one time, when it opened as if about to divide. It appeared like a large flaming ſheet of fire, inclining together like the flower leaves of a new-blown roſe. The ſound it made in its motion which was very ſwift, reſembled that of a great fire urged by a ſtrong wind. It kept near one height all the way, till it had croſſed the meridian to the north about twenty degrees, where was a ſmall cloud which ſeemed to attract it. It then mounted higher; and juſt as it ſeemed to touch the outward edge of the cloud, broke into thouſands of pieces, like thoſe fiery ones obſerved in the ſpringing of a mine. It had ſomething exceedingly remarkable in its center, that reſembled a glowing hot bar of iron, ſpitting and ſparkling as the main body moved. About thirty ſeconds of time after its breaking, was heard a report, like the firing of a large cannon, only that the ſound of it laſted about one minute.

26th. Came on at Guildhall, before lord chief juſtice Mansfield, and a ſpecial jury, the trial of Mr. Williams, for republiſhing the North Briton, N° 45, when the jury, after a long hearing, and being out near two hours, brought in their verdict, (not generally, but,) Guilty of republiſhing the North Briton N° 45.

Mr. Kearſly's trial came on immediately after, for the original publication of the ſame paper, and the jury brought in their verdict, Guilty.

It is obſervable, that this is the ſeventh proſecution for libels by information in the court of the King's Bench, ſince Chriſtmeſs laſt, viz.

1. Mr. Wilkes, for republiſhing the North Briton, N° 45. in volumes.

2. Mr. Wilkes, for printing the Eſſay on Woman.

3. Mr. Corbet, for an advertiſment in the Whitehall evening poſt.

4. The chevalier d'Eon, for publiſhing a book in French, intituled, Lettres, memoires, et negociations.

5. Mr. Wilkes, for originally publiſhing the North Briton, N° 45.

6. Mr. Williams, for republiſhing the ſame in volumes.

7. Mr. Kearſly, for publiſhing the ſame paper ſeparately.

All of which, except the fifth, which was always conſidered as the principal, were tried before lord Mansfield.

28th. Ended the ſeſſions at the Old Bailey, when a woman, for robbing a child of 3 l. 12 s. 8 d. one man, for perſonating a ſailor, and receiving his prize money, and two for a highway robbery, received ſentence of death, which the three men ſuffered. Forty were ſentenced to be tranſported for 7 years, two for 14 years: four were burnt in the hand, and four ordered to be whipped.

31ſt. The corporation of London have agreed, that the following inſcription ſhall be put at the bottom of the frame of the picture of the right hon. lord chief juſtice Pratt, which is ſoon to be placed in Guildhall.

Hanc Iconem Caroli Pratt, eq. ſummi judicis C. B. in honorem tanti viri Anglicæ libertatis lege aſſertoris fidi, S. P. Q. L. in curia municipali poni juſſerunt nono kal. Mar. A. D. 1764. Gulielmo Bridgen Arm. Præt. Urb.

The late right hon. lady Elizabeth Haſtings has, by a codicil to her will, bequeathed to the provoſt and college of Queen's college, Oxford, the ſum of 140 l. per ann. payable out of the manor of Wheldale in Yorkſhire, for the educating of five poor boys at the ſaid college, to be choſen from twelve country ſchools, named by her ladyſhip. They are to be allowed 20 l. per ann. each for the firſt four years, and 60 l. for the fifth year, provided they ſtay in the college.

Part of the celebrated Kenſington collection of paintings is now removed to Hampton Court, and form a principal ornament of that noble palace. Among theſe are the nine muſes, and Eſther and Ahaſuerus, by Tintoret; two ſhepherds offerings to our Saviour, and the woman of Samaria, by old Palma; the deluge, by Baſſan; the ſtory of Midas, by Andrea Sciavoni; the famous holy family, by Rubens; the equeſtrian pictures of king Charles, by Vandyke, and of the duke of Alva, by Rubens.

An oak was lately felled near Farmlingham, the body of which was perfectly ſound, and contained 13 loads 35 feet of timber, 5 loads of wrongs (pieces not leſs than ſix inches girt) 5 loads of round wood, with faggots and other ſmall wood in proportion.

An earthen pot, full of ſilver Roman coin, was lately found by a labouring man in digging on Warminſter common.

The firſt barrel of herrings, that arrived this year in Holland from the Shetland fiſhery, ſold for 54 l. and the reſt of the jagger's cargo at 25 l. the ſmall barrel.

Verſailles, June 20. This morning

ing the king's council quashed two arrets, one of the parliament of Grenoble, and the other of that of Rouen, by virtue of which two persons have been broken on the wheel, who have since been found to be innocent, by the confession of the real criminals. The fate of the East India company is likewise decided. It is to be kept up. The king makes the company a gift of 12,000 actions which belong to him; but withdraws the isles of France and Bourbon, which are henceforth to belong to the department of the marine, in regard to government and commerce, like all the other colonies. The company is to enjoy an exclusive trade to India, and is to be authorised to make a call of 400 livres per action; the dividend is to be raised to 80 livres for those who furnish 400 livres; and such proprietors, as do not answer this call, are to forfeit their right.

Some experiments to render sea-water fresh, made by the count d'Estaing in his voyage to St. Domingo, have proved so successful, that the king has been induced to give orders for fixing machines for this purpose on board all the men of war, and other ships that go long voyages, in order to provide against the dreadful calamities, so often arising from the want of fresh water.

By an extract of a letter from the comte de Tresan, member of our royal academy of sciences, to M. Morand of the same academy, we are informed of the death of Bebe, the king of Poland's famous dwarf. Bebe was the issue of two healthy, well-made, labouring people. His mother reared him with great difficulty, his mouth being so small that he could only take in part of her nipple. A wooden shoe served him for a long time by way of cradle; and his growth to the age of 12, was in proportion to his original littleness. At that age nature seemed to make an effort; but this effort was not uniform, his growth being unequal in many parts: his nose in particular was disproportioned to the rest of his features. Bebe gave very imperfect marks of understanding, and had no notion of the supreme being, or the immortality of the soul; he seemed to be fond of music, and beat time with tolerable exactness. He was susceptible of all the passions incident to human nature, such as anger, jealousy, &c. At the age of eighteen, the signs of puberty were very visible, and Bebe was so amorously inclined, that he is said to have anticipated old age by the indulgence of this propensity; for he began to decline from two and twenty, and actually died of old age, before he was thirty. On dissecting him, the anatomists discovered many obstructions, sufficient to account for the stoppage of his growth.

Freyburg, July 12. The day before yesterday a fire broke out here, by which 124 dwelling houses, besides public edifices, were reduced to ashes.

Copenhagen, July 7. The ports of our two islands of St. Thomas and St. John, in America, have been declared free, on the following conditions:

1. No European merchandizes shall be carried thither, except in his Danish majesty's European ships, which shall be furnished with passports. Two per cent. of the

the value to be paid on importation. All American productions to be admitted in ships of any nation, paying five per cent. of the usual duty; and these vessels may export any goods, duty free. But it is forbid all vessels to go from these islands to St. Croix, to take a cargo in return.

2. No productions, imported into these islands, shall be brought to Europe but in Danish ships which had first carried goods with passports; and these to unload only in Denmark or the Danish provinces.

3. These foreign productions shall be exempted from foreign duty, but those of the growth of St Thomas and St. John are to pay five per cent.

4. Frauds shall be punished by confiscation, and a fine of five rix-dollars for every quintal of sugar, and twenty rix-dollars for every 100 lb. of cotton, over and above the duties.

5. Foreign sugars brought from these islands to the Danish states shall remain only till they can be exported again, paying one per cent. duty.

Rome, July 1. A sepulchral monument, or columbarium (as the antiquarians term it) has been lately discovered in a vineyard belonging to prince Corsini, which is situated without the gate, anciently called Aurelia. The vault was adorned with landscapes and views in perspective, and the walls divided into niches, in which several urns were placed to receive the ashes of the dead. A great number of funeral lamps of curious workmanship, representing several subjects of mythology, were found here, together with two exquisite pieces of sculpture, in the finest Grecian manner, the one representing Venus dallying with Cupid, and the other Europa carried off by Jupiter in the form of a bull. Prince Corsini has enriched his magnificent library with several of the precious remains of this ancient monument, which ought rather to have been preserved in its primitive state.

Petersburg, June 15. Our sovereign has founded two new establishments; one under the name of *the school of arts*, where boys of good family will be received at the age of five or six, and instructed till the age of fifteen, in all the sciences necessary for those who are destined to the service of their country. Sixty will be admitted the first year, sixty more the second, and so from year to year, till the number amounts to three hundred. This school was opened with great pomp and solemnity. The other establishment is for the education of an hundred and fifty young ladies, in imitation of that of St. Cyr, by which name it is called. The princess Dolgorowski is appointed governess.

Abstract of a letter in the Dutch Philosophical Transactions, on the animal electricity of the conger-eel, written June 7, 1761, from Rio Essequebo, in South America, by Mr. Lott, surgeon of that colony.

"The fish here called the drill wisch, or conger-eel, is a kind of eel, in length from one to five feet, and of this singular quality, that it produces all the known effects of electricity, the like shock, the

the like real or ſuppoſed cures. I, at firſt, cured fowls, grown paralytic by contractions of the nerves; and then, proceeding from animals to men, by electrified a paralytic by ſtriking his knees three times with one of theſe fiſhes, freſh taken. The ſhock was ſuch as to throw him down, with the two perſons who held him, but he ſoon got up, and, inſtead of being carried from the place of operation, walked away as if nothing had ever ailed him With this admirable eel I have, likewiſe cured nervous diſorders, fevers, and very ſevere headachs, to which the ſlaves here are peculiarly ſubject. Some of theſe wonders were performed before the governor and ſeveral other perſons of conſideration."

Mr. Henry Walton, a conſiderable farmer in Devonſhire, who died lately without iſſue or relations, has left Mr. Wilkes a legacy of 5,000l. in the following words, viz. "I give and bequeath unto John Wilkes, eſq; late member for Ayleſbury, in Bucks, the ſum of 5000 l. as an acknowledgement to him, who bravely defended the conſtitutional liberties of his country, and checked the dangerous progreſs of arbitrary power."

Mrs. King of Chertſey, in Surry, aged 60, and whoſe huſband is 72, was lately brought to bed of a ſon.

A young woman of Netra in Angermania, a province in the north of Sweden, was, the 4th ultimo, brought to bed of a boy, on the 8th of a girl, next day of another girl, and died on the 10th in the delivery of a fourth infant.

Died lately. Mrs. Harris, oppoſite St. Anne's church Soho, weighing 320 lb.

Elizabeth Elſden, near Morpeth, aged 106; her huſband died in January laſt, aged 104.

Mrs. Mary Redmond of Dublin, aged 103.

Mrs. Joanna Freeman, of Clerkenwell, aged 107.

Mr. Ephraim Randal of Morpeth, in Cumberland, aged 109.

AUGUST.

1ſt. The great cauſe, relative to the tolls of Windſor-bridge, was determined in favour of the corporation, at Abingdon aſſizes.

3d. Was held a committee of the new bridge at the committee room, Black-fryars, in conſequence of ſome very ſtrong objections having been made to the conſtruction of Black-friars bridge, particularly to the ſituation of the arches, and the projection of the abutment into the Thames, on the city ſide; when, upon full conſideration of the apertures of the arches, their ſituation, and that of the bridge in general, the breadth of the river at Black-fryars (being 1119 feet) and the nature and form of the banks on both ſides, it was reſolved, that the works carried on appeared to the committee to be conſtructed exactly agreeable to the drawings and papers laid before, and approved of by, them; and that, in the placing thereof, the greateſt regard had been had to the navigation of the river, with all poſſible tenderneſs to the private rights of individuals.

An

17th. An order of council was publiſhed, ſignifying his majeſty's intentions, that the laws ſhould be ſtrictly put in execution againſt ſmuggling, particularly on the neighbouring coaſts of the Iſle of Man; in conſequence whereof the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty are to ſtation a number of ſhips and cutters, under the command of diſcreet officers, in the harbours, and on the coaſts, of that iſland, in order to carry his majeſty's intentions into execution; and the government of Ireland are likewiſe to give ſuch directions for carrying his majeſty's intentions into execution, as to them may reſpectively appertain. And in order to take from foreigners all excuſe on the ſcore of ignorance, thoſe his majeſty's intentions have been notified to moſt of the courts of Europe.

25th. The collection, at the annual feaſt of the governors of St. Luke's hoſpital, amounted to 400l.

A large body of ſailors, having waited on admiral Corniſh, to know, when and in what manner they where to receive their prize-money, for the capture of Karical and Pondicherry, the admiral gave for anſwer, that he had waited on the directors of the Eaſt India company in their behalf, who ſignified, that they were of opinion that the company is entitled to all public ſtores taken from the enemy; ſo that, this being the whole of the conqueſt, 100,000 pagodas excepted, 50,000 of which have already been diſtributed to the navy, and the other 50,000 reſerved for the army, no further ſatisfaction can be given them. This anſwer did not ſeem to ſatisfy the ſailors, for, as they were not paid by the company, they thought the leaſt gratification they could have, was the plunder made in the company's ſervice.

31ſt. The marine ſociety, having upwards of 1600 l. remaining in their hands, have reſolved to continue their ſalutary and public ſpirited cares, in the cloathing and placing out apprentices the deſtitute orphans of ſailors, ſoldiers, and others, in the loweſt ſtages of human miſery, to all kinds of buſineſs relating to the ſea, being in hopes of further aſſiſtance for the promotion of their benevolent deſign.

There was lately taken near Beer on the Devonſhire coaſt, entangled in the lines of ſome lobſter pots, a ſea-turtle, about ſeven feet long; its fore fins were a yard long; its head was as large as a man's head; and its weight was gueſſed to be half a ton.

Seven Yarmouth ſhips are returned from the whale fiſhery, with ſeven fiſh; ten Londoners with ſeven fiſh, and two others with four fiſh and 100 ſeal ſkins; one Leith ſhip with one fiſh; one Borrowſtoneneſs ſhip without any; one Aberdeen ſhip with a very ſmall whale. The Dutch ſhips took only 117 fiſh; not half their uſual number.

There have been lately put up, in the great court room at the Eaſt India houſe in Leadenhall-ſtreet, three following curious white marble ſtatues, viz. in the center, over the chairman's ſeat, that of Sir George Pococke, knight of the bath, and admiral of the blue; on the admiral's right hand, Robert lord Clive, baron of Plaſſey; the

and, on the left, major general Laurence. These ſtatues are bigger than the life, dreſſed in the Roman habit, and executed by Mr. Schemaker.

It appears, that no leſs than 3591 pair of ſoals, together with a great quantity of other fiſh, weighing in the whole above three tons and a half, have been diſtributed from the land-carriage fiſh-office in King-ſtreet, Weſtminſter, to the priſons and poor inhabitants of Lambeth, during the months of June and July laſt, amounting in value to 341l. 13s. and upwards.

At Bedford aſſizes, two were capitally convicted, but reprieved.

At Buckingham aſſizes, two, but reprieved.

Dorcheſter aſſizes proved a maiden one.

At Exeter aſſizes, five were capitally convicted.

At Glouceſter aſſizes, three, but one reprieved.

At Guilford aſſizes, ſeven, five of them for the highway, who, with one of the others, were executed.

At this aſſizes, a remarkable cauſe was tried between Mr. Beaver of St. Martin's-lane, plaintiff, and the toll-collector of the Surry turnpike, defendant. The caſe was this. Mr. Beaver's cart carrying dung to his farm in Kent, being found on weighing to exceed the ordinary limitations of the act by above 400 wt. the toll collector, on being refuſed the penalty, ſeized a horſe, for the recovery of which Mr. Beaver brought his action. The council for the plaintiff argued, that dung for the manure of land was exempted in every road-act, and was liable neither to toll or penalty. The council for the defendant inſiſted, that by the late broad-wheel act, 3 George III. all exemptions whatever were taken away from narrow wheels, and the words of the act being full to the point, a verdict was given for the defendant. This is the firſt cauſe of the kind that has come before any court.

At Hertford aſſizes, a cauſe was tried, in which a citizen of London was plaintiff, and a farmer of Stanſtead defendant, for a horſe bought of the latter, warranted ſound, which ſoon after proved defective in his eyes. The jury, without going out of court, gave a verdict for the plaintiff, and the judge, lord chief juſtice Mansfield, took occaſion to declare, that if at any time any horſe dealer ſhould take the price of a ſound horſe for an unſound one, the warranting, or not warranting, ſhould make no difference in the deciſion.

At Hereford aſſizes, two were capitally convicted, but reprieved.

At Hull aſſizes, two, but reprieved.

At Lancaſter aſſizes, four, but three were reprieved.

At Leiceſter aſſizes, one.

At Maidſtone aſſizes, five.

At Newcaſtle aſſizes, two.

At Northumberland aſſizes, one.

At Norfolk aſſizes, three, one of them reprieved till October.

At Northampton aſſizes, three for the murder of Thomas Carey. The deceaſed, who was a travelling Scotchman that ſold ſtockings, calling ſome time ago at the houſe of one Seamark, near Gainſborough, in the way of his trade, was followed by the priſoners,

then in the houſe, who forced him back, murdered him in the garden, and buried the body hard by; but being fearful of a diſcovery, in a few days they took up the body, cut it in pieces, and burnt it in an oven. The entrails they gave to their dogs. The diſcovery of this horrid fact was made by Seamark's wife, and corroborated by circumſtances that amounted to a demonſtration.

At Norwich aſſizes, two were capitally convicted, of whom one was reprieved.

At Saliſbury aſſizes, three, one of them for murder, who was executed.

At Shrewſbury aſſizes, two, but reprieved.

At Somerſetſhire aſſizes, two.

At Warwick aſſizes, one.

At Wincheſter aſſizes, one, but reprieved.

At Wiſbeach aſſizes, for the Iſle of Ely, one, but reprieved.

At Worceſter aſſizes, one, but reprieved.

At the ſeſſions held at Yarmouth for that borough, before the right honourable Robert Walpole, eſq; recorder, one.

At York aſſizes, one for murdering his wife, who was executed, and three for other crimes, who were reprieved.

Extract of a letter from D. G. eſq; at Venice.

"I called at Parma in my way hither, and was introduced to the duke, when he dined with the duke of York; he ſpeaks Engliſh well, and underſtands it better.—He had read Shakeſpear, and was very deſirous to hear our manner of ſpeaking, which deſire he ſhewed with ſo much feeling and delicacy, that I readily conſented, in preſence of the duke of York, lord Spencer, and the firſt miniſter. He was greatly pleaſed, and the next morning ſent me a very handſome gold box, with ſome of the fineſt enamelled painting upon all the ſides of it, I ever ſaw.—He likewiſe ordered apartments for me, and ſent me from his court more conceited by half than I came to it."

Berlin, July 18. This day was performed at Charlottenborug, the ceremony of betrothing between prince Frederick William, preſumptive heir to the throne of Pruſſia, and the princeſs Elizabeth Chriſtina Ulrica of Brunſwick-Wolfenbuttel, in preſence of the king and all the royal family of Pruſſia, the princes and princeſſes of Brunſwick, the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel, the miniſters of ſtate, foreign miniſters, &c. After the ſolemnity, the court ſupped in public, during which the gardens of Charlottenbourg were ſuperbly illuminated, and the night terminated with a ball. The public rejoicings continued for three or four days.

Warſaw, July 16. Count de Keiſerling, and prince de Repnin, had lately a public audience of the primate, in the preſence of ſeveral of the magnates; on which occaſion, an inſtrument, written on parchment in the Latin and Ruſſian languages, was produced, with the ſeal of the republic affixed thereto, giving the empreſs of Ruſſia, and her ſucceſſors, the title of emperor or empreſs of all the Ruſſias; on conſideration of which, the czarina is to give it in writing,

ing, under her own hand, that neither ſhe, nor any of her ſucceſſors, will ever lay claim to any part of the provinces belonging to Poland, which may be included, comprehended, or contained under the ſaid title; but that they ſhall reciprocally keep poſſeſſion of all the provinces, as was ſtipulated in the treaty of peace concluded between the Ruſſians and Poles in the year 1683. Theſe writings are to be interchanged, when the empreſs arrives at Mittau.

An inſtrument of the ſame ſort, giving the title of king of Pruſſia to that prince, he giving it under his hand in writing, that he the ſaid monarch never made, nor he, or any of his ſucceſſors, ever will make any pretenſions to any part of Poliſh Pruſſia, has been delivered to the Pruſſian ambaſſador.

Cadiz, Auguſt 10. A few days ago a dead body was landed here, incloſed in a long ſkin nearly reſembling that of a bear. It was found, with ſeveral others of the ſame kind, in ſome caverns in the Canary iſlands, where they are ſuppoſed to have been buried before the conqueſt of thoſe iſlands by John de Betancourt, a Norman, in 1417, or by Peter de Vera, a Spaniard, in 1483. The fleſh of this body is perfectly preſerved, but is dry, inflexible, and hard as wood, ſo that to the touch it ſeems petrified, though it is not. The features of the face are very perfect, and appear to be thoſe of a young man; nor is that, or any other part of the body, decayed; the body is no more ſhrunk than if the perſon had not been dead above two or three days, only the ſkin appears a little ſhrivelled. This body is ſent to Madrid to be depoſited in the royal academy of ſurgery. The caſe, in which it was placed, had another ſmall caſe within it, containing two or three vaſes, and a hand mill, which were found in the ſame cavern.

A baſket woman of Clare market was lately delivered of three girls.

Died lately. Mr. Allen, of Prior-park near Bath, a gentleman not more remarkable for the ingenuity and induſtry with which he made a very great fortune, than the charity, generoſity, and politeneſs with which he ſpent it. A codicil to his will dated the 10th November 1760, contains the following bequeſt.

"For the laſt inſtance of my friendly and grateful regard for the beſt of friends, as well as the moſt upright and ableſt of miniſters that has adorned our country, I give to the right honourable William Pitt the ſum of one thouſand pounds, to be diſpoſed of by him to any of his children that he may be pleaſed to appoint for it."

Mrs. Bentley, at Iſlington; by her death 5000l. comes to the fund for the ſupport of the widows and orphans of diſſenting teachers; 100l. for the ſupport of a diſſenting teacher at Kingſton upon Thames; and 1000l. to St. Thomas's hoſpital.

Suſan Devon, in the Park, Southwark, aged 104.

Chriſtopher Ximenes, near Cadiz, aged 110.

Joſeph Fernandez, in Spain, by a fall down ſtairs, aged 122.

In the 125th year of his age, George Kirton, of Oxnop hall, near Reeth, in Yorkſhire, eſq; a gen-

gentleman more remarkable for fox-hunting than the famous Mr. Draper; for, after following the chace on horseback till he was upwards of 80, so great was his desire for the diversion, that (till he was 100 years old) he regularly attended unkennelling the fox in his single-horse chair. He was an instance that length of days is not always intailed on a life of temperance and sobriety; for no man made freer with his bottle than he did, even till within ten years of his death.

The sieur Somlyade, in Hungary, aged 131.

SEPTEMBER.

1st. His royal higness the duke of York arrived from his travels at his house in Pall-Mall, and immediately waited upon his majesty and the princess dowager, and soon after the rest of the royal family, by whom he was received with the greatest affection. His royal highness returned by land, directing his route through the inferior cities of France, without stopping any where, or making himself known.

Our readers, we believe, will not expect any detail of his royal highness's tour. However, we cannot help observing with pleasure, that his royal highness was solemnly invited from court to court, and received every where with all that respect and affection due to his birth and virtues, and all that pomp and splendor for which the Italians are so famous. The Roman senate and nobility shewed a particular attention to render his stay in that ancient city as agreeable as possible. The pope ordered him to be presented with two of the finest pictures, and three of the finest books of drawings of that seat of the fine arts. But the shews exhibited at Venice for the entertainment, and in honour of his royal highness seem to deserve particular notice; for which reason, we think it our duty to give them, though at the end of the Chronicle, in order to avoid too long a digression in this place.

This day twelvemonth, at five in the afternoon, began at Banda Neira, one of the Molucca islands, a place very subject to earthquakes, situated in 4 degrees 30 minutes south latitude, and about 30 miles from Amboyna, one of the most terrible that had been felt there for above half a century past. The first shock lasted more than four minutes, and was so violent, that no body could stand upon his feet. All the inhabitants ran out of their houses, but were no sooner got into the street, than they fell to the ground almost motionless. The same evening, and the following night, there were sixteen shocks more, but not so violent as the first. At the first shock, the sea fell suddenly five fathoms, and in less than three minutes swelled with inexpressible rapidity, and overflowed a great deal of land.

The castle, governor's house, magazine, &c. were rendered useless, and the church cracked in many places. More than three quarters of the north part of the island were destroyed, and Neira is entirely ruined. No part, in short, escaped without great damages. At the same time the volcano Papenberg threw out vast stones, &c. but

but what is extraordinary, only ſeven perſons were killed. The inhabitants were all living under tents the 12th, when the letters giving this account were dated; the noiſes in the earth, like that of the firing of cannon, keeping them in continual fears of greater calamities.

5th. At the trienial meeting of the three choirs of Worceſter, Glouceſter, and Hereford, held at Worceſter, the collection at the cathedral amounted to 198 l.

11th. St. James's. In anſwer to the repreſentations made by his majeſty's ambaſſador at the court of France, demanding immediate ſatisfaction and reparation for acts of violence committed, on the firſt of June laſt, by the commander of a French ſhip of war, in conjunction with other French veſſels, at one of the Turks iſlands, the court of France has diſavowed the ſaid proceedings; has diſclaimed all intention or deſire of acquiring or conquering the Turks iſlands; and has given orders to the comte d'Eſtaign, governor of St. Domingo, to cauſe the ſaid iſland to be immediately abandoned on the part of the French, to reſtore every thing therein to the condition in which it was on the 1ſt of June laſt, and to make reparation of the damages which any of his majeſty's ſubjects ſhall be found to have ſuſtained in conſequence of the ſaid proceedings, according to an eſtimation to be forthwith ſettled by the ſaid governor with his majeſty's governor of Jamaica: and a duplicate of the ſaid orders has been delivered to his majeſty's ſaid ambaſſador, who has tranſmitted the ſame to his majeſty's ſecretary of ſtate.

Theſe iſlands are many in number, of which that, where theſe violences happened, is the moſt conſiderable, or rather the leaſt inſignificant, being low, ſandy, and barren, with very little if any freſh water, without any vegetables except low ſhrubs, or any animals except lizards, guanas, and land-crabs; but the coaſt abounds with fiſh and turtle, and the beach is covered with ſea-fowl.

It does not appear that any ſettlement was ever attempted by any European nation on theſe iſlands, ſo that no claim can ariſe from poſſeſſion. If priority of diſcovery beſtows any title, they muſt certainly belong to the Spaniards, and not to the French, who neither diſcovered, nor ever did poſſeſs them.

The Britiſh nation has certainly been in uſe of gathering ſalt on them for many years paſt. The buſineſs of making it is chiefly carried on by Bermudians, who come here in the month of March, and continue during the dry ſeaſon, leading a life, that the idea of liberty only can render preferable to ſlavery itſelf. They live in little huts covered with leaves; they have a knife in their pocket, and a kettle in their kitchen; their wardrobes conſiſt of nothing but a ſtraw hat, a check ſhirt, and a pair of Oſnabrug trowzers; their food is ſalt-pork, and now and then a turtle or guana (a ſort of large lizard) when they have time to catch them; and very often they are without bread; yet in this way of life they enjoy health. Nor do they ever differ about property or religion, for they have neither

ther prieſt, lawyer, or phyſician among them. The New-Englanders come here with ſloops and ſchooners in great numbers, to load ſalt for their fiſheries: they buy it from 4 d. to 6 d. ſterling the buſhel, and pay the poor Bermudians a ſmall part in money, the reſt in ſtinking rum, rotten pork, and muſty biſcuit, now and then throwing them a caſk of ſour water into the bargain.

The above iſlands have good anchor ground to the leeward, but no harbour any where. But then they form, with the Caicos bank, a channel of about a league over, which the Engliſh cruizers very much frequented during the war, as being the common paſſage for all veſſels from Monte Chriſti. The French call this channel *le debouquemnet des iſles Turques*, and their pilots from Cape Francois always prefer it, when the wind favours, to the *canal Anglois*, or windward paſſage of our Jamaica men. Theſe, therefore, are the only reaſons that can be aſſigned for their thus attempting to ſettle there, though it does not appear that they did more with that view, (beſides plundering and burning the cabbins on it, and carrying the inhabitants, to the number of 200, and about nine ſail of Britiſh ſhipping, to Cape Francois, where they releaſed them with orders not to return to Turks iſland) than erect two ſtone monuments of 80 feet high, the materials of which were all brought from Old France, and leave a few perſons to take care of theſe monuments.

15th. The damages, done to an Engliſh merchant ſhip, which was, by miſtake, attacked in May laſt by the commodore of ſome Spaniſh xebeques cruiſing againſt the Algerines in the Mediterranean, were immediately repaired out of the Spaniſh arſenal at Carthagena: And, in conſequence of the repreſentations made, on that ſubject, by his majeſty's ambaſſador at the court of Madrid, his catholic majeſty has given orders for defraying the expence of the cure of the Engliſh who were wounded in that attack, for indemnifying the captain for the loſs of time occaſioned thereby, and for giving a gratification to the paſſenger who unfortunately loſt his arm by a ſhot from the Spaniſh xebeque. *London Gazette.*

The above affair has been repreſented upon oath very much to the diſhonour of the Spaniards. They were charged with firing ſeveral broadſides into the Engliſh veſſel, while lying under the commodore's ſtern, even too near to be hulled by them, and while the crew were declaring themſelves Engliſh, and crying out for mercy. Though, on the one hand, there may be ſomething exaggerated in this account; on the other, there appears to have been ſomething very extraordinary in the behaviour of the Spaniſh commodore, who, it is ſaid, has been ſince broke and diſmiſſed the ſervice, at the particular deſire of the Engliſh ambaſſador.

The cork jacket, the air jacket, the marine collar and belt, being ſo many new invented preſervatives againſt drowning, were tried againſt each other at London bridge, while there was a conſiderable fall. Two men with cork jackets went through erect, without uſing their arms or legs, one of them with a drawn cutlaſs in his

his hand; then two men, and a woman in a mob cap and red ribbons, went through likewiſe in air jackets; theſe were followed by two men in the marine collar and belt. Thus ſecured, they danced in the eddy a conſiderable time, to the no ſmall diverſion of thouſands of ſpectators, whom one of the men in the the air jacket preſented with apples, at the ſame time that he regaled himſelf with bread and cheeſe; after which he fired a piſtol: theſe things were contained in his cap, which was made on purpoſe. Upon the whole, it was a droll and not indecent ſight, they all being dreſſed in flannel ſhifts and linen breeches.

Ended the ſeſſions at the Old Bailey, when five for burglary; two for highway robberies, and one for returning from tranſportation, received ſentence of death. One was ſentenced to be tranſported for fourteen years, and forty for ſeven years.

16th. The wind blew ſo violently as to carry away all that part of the new erected ſcaffold on St. Bride's ſteeple, which ſtood above the ſtone-work. It was remarkable that the timbers ſnapt in two in the middle, while all remained firm underneath.

18th. Was held a board of longitude for determining the merits of the three different methods propoſed for diſcovering it at ſea, by aſcertaining the time of the place left, viz. that by obſerving the occultation and emerſion of Jupiter's ſatellites in the marine chair invented by Mr. Irwin; that by taking the diſtance of the moon from the fixed ſtars with Hadley's quadrant; and that by Mr. Harriſon's new invented time-keeper; when, the proprietor of the marine chair endeavouring to refute the aſſertions of a gentleman, whoſe opinions he thought did not do juſtice to his invention, another gentleman, who ſpoke with great candour of all the three methods, acknowledged, that obſervations may be made with greater certainty in, than out of, the marine chair; but expreſſed his apprehenſions as to the poſſibility of aſcertaining the longitude at ſea by it, though the ſatellite theory were ſufficiently perfect, which he ſeemed to doubt. The commiſſioners acknowledged, that the lunar method anſwered very well, but they objected to the tedious calculation attending it; to obviate which, Mr. Witchell, a gentleman well known for his ſkill in aſtronomical calculations, preſented to the board a method, by which that calculation may be reduced to a ſingle proportion by logarithms, and conſequently rendered as ſimple as can be deſired. With regard to Mr. Harriſon's time-keeper, its merits were found to be ſuch, that the commiſſioners were pleaſed to give him an order for the immediate payment of 1000 l.

Bank ſtock roſe near 8 per cent. on a dividend of 1-half per cent. inſtead of 2 1-quarter, as for ſome years paſt, being declared for the half year ending the 10th of next month, with aſſurance that there were great hopes the ſame dividend could be continued. 27th.

There was the higheſt tide in the river Thames that has been known for many years. Great damages were done by the filling of cellars and over-flow- 28th.

ing of the low marſhes; ſome ſhips, too, were daſhed againſt each other by the violence of the wind. In ſome houſes near the river that water roſe two feet in the ground floors.

A committee of merchants having lately waited upon the earl of Halifax, to repreſent the hardſhip they laboured under, an account of the non-payment of Canada bills by the French government, contrary to the expreſs ſtipulations of the late treaty of peace for that purpoſe, his lordſhip was pleaſed to inform them, that every neceſſary ſtep had already been taken, and ſhould be continued, to oblige the court of France, to comply with the terms of that treaty.

The following is an account of the diſtributions made of the money, &c. hitherto received, on account of the capture of the Manilla:

	l.	s.	d.
Between the admiral, general, and commodore —	14120	12	9
To the captains of the navy, and field officers of the army, each —	1539	0	8½
To the lieutenants and maſters of the navy, and captains of the army, each —	165	4	8
To the warrant officers of the navy, and ſubalterns of the army, each —	89	0	5½
To the petty officers of the navy, and non-commiſſion officers of the army, each —	30	0	1
To the ſeamen and ſoldiers, each —	6	0	3

29th. A mob of white-boys attacked a party of regular forces, who were conducting four of their body to Kilkenny goal in Ireland, with a view of reſcuing them. The ſkirmiſh was obſtinate and bloody, above thirty of the rioters and ſeveral of the king's troops having been killed or wounded. On the approach of a reinforcement, the rioters made a precipitate retreat, and the priſoners during the fray eſcaped. But the ſoldiers afterwards picked up nineteen of the wounded rioters, who were carried in carts to places of ſecurity.

It is reported, that for ſeveral months paſt ſcarce a ſmuggling cutter has gone over to France, without carrying ſome Engliſh ſheep; for the tranſporting of which they are paid ſo much per head. In a paſture near Rouen in Normandy there are near two hundred, for the benefit of the great woollen manufactory carried on at that place, and to keep up the breed, the climate of Normandy agreeing nearly with that of England.

M. Roi de Valine, a young gentleman of Picardy, about the age of ſeventeen, was lately broke upon the wheel at Abbeville, and his body afterwards burnt, for attempting to poiſon, at an entertainment, his uncle and aunt, and ſeveral other perſons, one of whom actually died in about five hours. He confeſſed the fact, and other crimes not charged againſt him in the proceſs. Ten thouſand crowns, out of his eſtate, were adjudged to the family of the deceaſed

ceaſed perſon; a very equitable ſentence.

The royal academy of ſciences at Paris, having appointed ſome proper judges to inſpect the new porcelain manufactory of M. Lauragais, thoſe judges have certified that they could diſcover no material difference between the paſte of M. Lauragais, and that of the true japan; and thereupon pronounced it worthy of national encouragement.

Another porcelain manufactory has been lately eſtabliſhed, at an immenſe expence, by the king of Pruſſia, in his majeſty's dominions, and already brought to ſuch perfection as to rival that at Miſſen near Dreſden, which that monarch during the late war in a manner ruined.

M. de Voltaire holds out ſo well, that at the repreſentation of Merope, at his ſeat on the frontiers of Geneva, for the entertainment of the dukes de Randan and de Tremouille, he played himſelf the part of Poliphontes.

Leghorn, Auguſt 17. It is now pretended to be known from good authority, that the republic of Genoa, no longer able to cope with the Corſican malecontents by land, and juſty apprehenſive of their being ſoon unable to do it by ſea, has concluded a treaty with France relative to that iſland, and that this treaty was ſigned at Compiegne the 7th inſtant, and contains in ſubſtance, 'That his moſt chriſtian majeſty ſhall ſend ſeven battalions of his troops into Corſica, to ſtay there four years, and occupy Baſtia, Saint-Florent, Algagliola, and Ajaccio; that theſe troops ſhall not be engaged in the war, but only be employed in ſecuring to the republic the poſſeſſion of theſe places; that his moſt chriſtian majeſty ſhall furniſh them their pay, and bread and meat; but the iſland ſhall find them fire, candle, forage, and lodging; that the republic ſhall be at no other expence than the ſtipulated ſubſidy; that in the places, which the French troops ſhall occupy, there ſhall be no Genoeſe, and that the republic's repreſentatives there ſhall take cognizance only of civil affairs; that, if by the preſence of theſe troops in the iſland peace ſhall be reſtored, the moſt chriſtian king ſhall be a guarantee to it; that they ſhall be tranſported from France about the end of September, under convoy of two frigates and two xebeques after which theſe frigates and xebeques ſhall continue to cruize on the coaſt of Corſica till the month of December.

This morning the conſul that reſided at Algiers, on the part of this grand duchy, landed here with the diſagreeable news, that the dey of that ſtate had declared war againſt the emperor, grand duke of Tuſcany. The reaſon of this haſty rupture is ſaid to be, that a ſhip under Tuſcan colours taken by the Algerines, but releaſed on her being claimed by our conſul, was afterwards found to be a Neapolitan. Letters from different places adviſe, that the ſaid dey is alſo much incenſed againſt the Engliſh and Danes, for their giving paſſports to ſhips of other nations, in order to make them paſs as their own.

Copenhagen, Sept. 4. The nuptials of their royal and moſt

ſerene highneſſes, his majeſty's eldeſt daughter and the hereditary prince of Heſſe, were ſolemniſed on Saturday laſt in the preſence of their Daniſh majeſties and the royal family. All the foreign miniſters, by invitation, aſſiſted, and afterwards ſupped, in the uſual manner, at the king's table.—On the 13th the reigning prince of Heſſe delivered in form the reins of government of the county of Hanau to the hereditary prince.

Though it can ſcarcely be ſaid, we have any formal war with the Indians of North America, the letters from that country make frequent mention of their killing, ſcalping, and burning in the back ſettlements of our colonies there; a thing not at all ſurpriſing, conſidering that theſe back ſettlements, as being very remote from the ſeats of juſtice, are the common rendezvous of all the vagabonds, runaways, thieves, &c. of the ſea coaſt, whoſe behaviour to the Indians may very charitably be ſuppoſed not always to coincide with the ſtricteſt laws of natural equity, of which, however, the rudeſt Indians may be competent judges, though not always wiſe enough to diſtinguiſh between the innocent and the guilty. Be that as it will, ſeveral of the provinces have reſolved to check theſe evils, as much as poſſible, by prohibiting, under ſevere penalties, any perſon whatſoever from ſupplying the Indians with ammunition, arms, or warlike ſtores; not even thoſe in friendſhip with the Engliſh, without a licence from the governor; and ſome of the colonies are upon eſtabliſhing aſſizes in their moſt diſtant counties.

At Berghen, in Jutland, a peaſant's wife was lately delivered of her 29th child, all born alive.

Died lately. At Durham, Mr. Robert Dodſley, of whom the compiler of this Chronicle hopes he may be allowed, after other periodical publications, to ſay, that he was, as a bookſeller, long eminent for the countenance he afforded the muſes, a moſt agreeable poet himſelf, and one of the moſt amiable of men.

Mr. Stephenſon of Camberwell, aged 100.

Mrs. Margaret Daley, of Great Maddox-ſtreet, aged 101.

OCTOBER.

Admiralty office. By letters lately received from commodore Palliſer, dated at St. John's, in Newfoundland, the firſt of laſt month, it appears, that having diſpatched a ſloop with a letter to the French governor of the iſland of St. Pierre, to enquire into the truth of the reports which prevailed of the French having mounted cannon, and erected works on that iſland, contrary to treaty, he, in anſwer, received aſſurances from the ſaid governor, that there was only one four-pounder gun mounted, without a plat-form, and with no other intention, than to anſwer ſignals to their fiſhermen in foggy weather; that there were no buildings or works erected contrary to treaty; and that the guard conſiſted of no more than 47 men, and had never exceeded 50. It farther appears by the commodore's ſaid letters, that there had not been, or were at that time, at 2d.

the

the iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, more than one French ſhip of war of 50 guns, one frigate of 26 guns, and another of leſs force, with two large ſhips en flute, the deſtination of one of the ſaid ſhips en flute being for Cayenne, and the other for St. Domingo: That none of thoſe ſhips had, and the commanding officer aſſured the commodore none of them would, enter into any of the harbours on the coaſts of Newfoundland. And the commodore adds, that the concurrent fiſhery in thoſe parts of the ſaid coaſts, whereon the French are by treaties permitted to fiſh, had been carried on in perfect tranquility.

3d. The tide of ebb was lower in the river Thames, than it has been known theſe many years. And the tide of flood roſe ſo high at Oſtend, without any known cauſe, that the inhabitants were thrown into the greateſt conſternation, leſt the whole city ſhould be overflowed.

9th. There fell in many parts of the duchy of Cleves, and particularly in the city of Cleves, a kind of rain of a red colour reſembling blood, which occaſioned various ſpeculations. It rained there without ceaſing, not only the day on which the above phænomenon was obſerved, but ſeveral preceding days. It is ſaid that ſomething of the like kind was obſerved the ſame day at Rhenen in the province of Utrecht.

The above ſubſtance, having been ſince examined by Dr. Schutte, a learned phyſician, was found to contain nothing hurtful to man or beaſt. The ingenious Swammerdam has endeavoured to account for phænomena of this nature, by obſerving that inſects, ſoon after their aſſuming the volatile form, ſhed from the anus a few drops of blood. The above rain, therefore, might have been produced by ſome great ſwarm of ſuch new metamorphoſed inſects, flying ſo high in the atmoſphere, as to be hid by the clouds in the lower regions of it.

The merchants having preſented a petition, touching the high prices of proviſions, to lord Halifax, a council was immediately called; and, after examination of evidence, his majeſty directly ordered his royal proclamation for the free importation of ſalted beef, ſalted pork, and butter, from Ireland, and a reward of 100l. for diſcovering any unlawful combinations in the ſale of proviſions of any kind; the high price of which has lately given occaſion to ſome diſturbances at Plymouth, and other parts of England, particularly in Derbyſhire, where the colliers, finding wheat one day in the market at 8s. 4d. the buſhel, cleared the market at 5s. a buſhel, which they ſaid was the London price. In York, the gentlemen aſſociated to raiſe a fund for the importation of corn from other counties, that the poor might be ſupplied at a reaſonable price. But, certainly, this might be effected ſolely, by a greater exertion of the magiſtrates authority to prevent monopolies, foreſtalling, and ſuch other illegal practices.

12th. A ſmart ſhock of an earthquake was felt in the Azores, or Weſtern Iſlands; its direction was from the ſouth-weſt, and it did conſiderable damage at Fyal.

19th. Ended the seſſions at the Old Bailey, at which four were capitally convicted; one for forgery, and three for ſtealing. Three were ſentenced to tranſportation for fourteen years, twenty-two for ſeven years, and one was branded.

31ſt. This morning were diſpatched to Harwich, to be forwarded to Poland, 300 medals in gold, and 1500 in ſilver, done by Mr. Pingo; the former for preſents to the nobility at the king's coronation there, the latter to be diſtributed among the populace. Legend STANISLAVS AVGVSTVS D. G. REX POLONIÆ. M. D. LITH. *i. e. Staniſlaus Auguſtus, by the Grace of God, King of Poland, Great Duke of Lithuania.* In very ſmall characters, on the edge of the king's buſt, T. PINGO F. On the reverſe, a crown with rays of glory round it. Legend, HANC IVSSIT FORTVNA MERERI. *This Fortune willed he ſhould Merit.* Exergue, El. vna voce VII Sept. coron. XXV Nov. M.DCC.LXIV. *Elected, with one voice, 7 September, crowned 25 November* 1764. His majeſty is about thirty-two years of age, about five feet ſeven in ſtature, has a majeſtic aſpect, and a piercing eye. He viſited London in the year 1754, remained in England from the beginning of September to the latter end of December, and, when in town, lodged at Mr. Cropenhole's, a private houſe in Suffolk-ſtreet, near the Mews. During his ſtay in this kingdom he made a tour through South Britain, and examined every thing worthy the attention of an ingenious and curious traveller. He liked England, and was fond of the perſons in genteel life with whom he converſed; but conſidered the lower claſs in a very unfavourable light, on account of ſome mobs which he chanced to be a ſpectator of, and from whence he too haſtily formed his opinion of the behaviour of the whole body of the common people.

On an application from the merchants to the E—— of A—— for the repayment of the duties impoſed on them by his authority at the Havannah, while in poſſeſſion of the Britiſh nation, his lordſhip told them, that, as he intended the ſaid duties for the ſervice of the government, he ſhould make a tender of them to the treaſury. But the lords of the treaſury, on ſuch tender being made, did, with the advice of the king's council, abſolutely refuſe to receive them, or to defend any actions that might be brought againſt his lordſhip for the recovery thereof. Upon this, his lordſhip appointed a perſon to refund the money ariſing from theſe duties to ſuch of the merchants, as would accept of it, without intereſt, and ſubject to the following abatements, viz. 9 per cent. for exchange, 2-1 half per cent. freight of the money home, and 5 per cent. commiſſion to the collector. It is ſaid that the amount is about 50,000 l. ſterling, clear of theſe deductions.

On opening the late duke of Devonſhire's will, there appeared a codicil of his grace's own handwriting, in theſe words, dated July 23. "I give to general Conway five thouſand pounds, as a teſtimony of

of my friendſhip for him, and of my ſenſe of his honourable conduct and friendſhip for me."

Information having been made againſt three perſons of Tarrant Niſhton in Dorſetſhire, for harbouring ſmuggled tea, on ſearching their houſes, there were found about thirty pounds of tea, mixed with leaves, and 1030 pounds weight of aſh, elder, and ſloe leaves, dried and prepared, ready for mixing with tea, part whereof was intended to be ſent to Guernſey, to be mixed there. Theſe leaves were collected in the ſummer, in Cranborn chaſe, wherein the poor of that neighbourhood were ſo much employed, that the farmers could not get labourers for their harveſt.

There has been diſcovered at Withersfield in Suffolk, a Roman burying-place, a glaſs urn of a good colour, and of an elegant make, with a fluted handle; it contains two gallons and a half, wine meaſure, and is thought to be the largeſt that ever was diſcovered, at leaſt in England. It is in the poſſeſſion of the reverend Mr. Barnard, rector of Withersfield, and chaplain to his majeſty.

A few days ago, two children going upon a bridge at Attercliffe-forge, near Sheffield, one of them, a boy about ſix years of age, fell into the river, from which his body was taken up before it ſunk, but without any appearance of life. A lady of quality hearing thereof, ſent her maid, with directions for rubbing the body (lying before the fire) well with ſalt; in about two hours, there appeared ſymptoms of life, and much water came out of the ears and noſtrils; they ſtill continuing to rub the body, ſoon after the child ſpoke, and had the uſe of its limbs, and is now as well as ever.

Mr. Elie de Beaumont, advocate in the parliament of Paris, and ſo much known for his generous defence of the family of Calas, having in a tour through England been to viſit the univerſity of Oxford ſome days ago, was honoured with the degree of doctor of laws; an action which reflects equal honour on that learned univerſity, being a convincing proof of her readineſs to acknowledge merit, and reward it, in perſons of every country and religion.

As the quarrymen were lately ridding of ſtone, in the iſland of Portland, for the new bridge at Black-friars, three feet ſix inches from the ſurface of the ground there appeared ſomething like the ſtump of an old tree. Mr. Dixon, the contractor for the maſon's work of the ſaid bridge, being then upon the ſpot, upon further examination, diſcovered it to be a real one, with its root petrified as hard as flint; the whole length four feet ſix inches, and the diameter above the root ſeventeen inches. What is very remarkable, it was encompaſſed with ſtone, in form like the dome of a well ſtanding obliquely, and its root in a ſtratum of black earth, eight inches deep, and about ſeven feet from the ſurface of the ground.

Thirty-two ſmall whales have been caught by ſome Dutch fiſhermen this ſeaſon, near the iſland Rona, one of the weſtern iſles of Scotland, about 60 miles eaſt of the

the north promontory of the Lewes. In the months of July and Auguſt, the ſhores of Rona, it ſeems, are much frequented by theſe fiſh, which are of a ſpecies between a grampus and a ſpermaceti whale. Six of them are eſteemed equal to the beſt imported from the Greenland ſeas.

The ſenate of Ruſſia, to whom the empreſs had ſent all the depoſitions relating to Mirowitz, on declaring him guilty of high treaſon, and worthy of death, preſented an animated addreſs to her imperial majeſty, entreating her to have ſpeedy and exemplary juſtice executed on this offender, and not to conſider him as, in any reſpect, an object of pity. On the other hand, powerful interceſſion is ſaid to have been made in the behalf of Mirowitz, and that her imperial majeſty's anſwer to the ſenate was to the following effect: *That it is their buſineſs to judge according to the evidence before them; but that it is her prerogative to decide, whether or no that judgment is to be executed with rigour, or to be tempered by mercy.* Mirowitz underwent his ſentence with great intrepidity. The whole trial was printed and publiſhed in the day of his execution.

Some antiquities lately diſcovered in a vineyard near the church de Saint Ceſair, ſituated on the Appian way, not far from the ruins of the baths of the emperor Caracalla, at Rome, have been removed to the Clementinian college there. The workmen who made the diſcovery, ſtruck againſt a thick vault, which they broke through with great difficulty. In this vault they found four urns of white marble, adorned with baſs reliefs, the ſubject of which left no room to doubt their being ſepulchral urns. Under this vault, they perceived another, which being broke through diſcovered two magnificent oval baſons, the one of a black colour mixed with veins of the *lapis calcedonius*, its greateſt diameter about ſix feet and a half, the leaſt three feet, and the depth two feet. This baſon was covered with a marble ſlab, which ſawed into two very handſome tables, and contained a human body. The ſecond baſon was of a greeniſh colour, of the ſame dimenſions with the firſt, except its being but a foot and a half deep. This was covered with white marble, and contained the body of a woman very richly cloathed. But the marble was hardly removed, when the body and its attire fell wholly into powder; from which was recovered eight ounces of pure gold. Near the urns was a ſtone with the following inſcription:

D. M.
VLPIAE
AUG. LIB. ACTE
CONJUGI
OPTIMAE
CALLISTUS AUG
DISPENSATOR.

On the right ſide of this ſtone was added

DECESSIT
IIII Idus
DECEMBRIS.

The reſt of the inſcription was deſtroyed by the marble being broke. In the ſame place was found a ſmall ſtatue of Pallas, in white marble; the work of which is highly eſteemed.

Copen-

Copenhagen, October 1. Upwards of 1400 perſons are daily employed in the Daniſh royal woollen manufactory, which produced laſt year ſixty-ſix pieces of good cloth; and in other woollen fabricks there are, in the whole, about 4000 men more at work. There are likewiſe 16 ſilk fabricks, in which 938 perſons are at work.

Kingſton in Jamaica, July 23, 1764. We ſhall now very ſhortly have the trade with the Spaniards again opened, as a veſſel has juſt now brought orders to the governor and admiral, to take off the prohibition, and to permit the Spaniards to enter our ports as uſual, which has given freſh ſpirits to the merchants here.—The goods which the Spaniards take moſt off, are Mancheſter linens, checks, and handkerchiefs, fine printed linens of all ſorts, cambricks, Britannias, Sileſias, hats, &c.

The inhabitants of our North American colonies, diſabled by the reſtrictions laid on their trade to the French and Spaniſh Weſt India iſlands, to pay their mother country for ſuch goods as they hitherto uſed to take from her, are come to a reſolution to manufacture for themſelves, and have already produced ſome ſpecimens of their abilities to carry into execution a ſcheme, which may in the end prove ſo detrimental to her. In the mean time, they have laid aſide all theſe ſuperfluities of dreſs, ſuch as mourning in black, &c. with which their own manufactures cannot ſupply them. They, likewiſe, have ſeveral works of iron, which are ſo uſeful in every other manufacture, and they are likely to have that valuable metal very ſoon in great plenty and perfection, it appearing by a letter from the late Mr. Jared Elliot, to the ſecretary of the ſociety for encouraging arts, &c. that there are vaſt quantities on the ſea coaſts of New England, and in many other places, of a black ſand, from eighty-three pounds of which he produced a bar of excellent iron, weighing fifty pounds, of an excellent texture for making ſteel, and all other uſes. Add to this, that Cape Breton and Nova Scotia abound with excellent coal mines, in ſome places ſo near the ſurface, and ſo highly ſituated, as to require neither digging nor draining. Thoſe of Nova Scotia have been already opened. On the other hand, the French, at their iſlands, are entering largely into the manufactory of diſtilling molaſſes, the better to enable them to carry on the African trade; by which means they can be ſupplied with their ſlaves at a much cheaper rate than any of the Engliſh iſlands. This undertaking, if carried into execution, muſt ſoon open the eyes of the Engliſh planters in the Weſt Indies will, in the mean time, very ſenſibly injure the trade of Liverpool.

A farmer's wife, at Black Notley, near Braintree in Eſſex, who will not been married five years till the latter end of next month, has been brought to-bed five times ſince her marriage, and had two children at a birth each time; ſhe lay-in of the laſt two in July, and is now with child again. The firſt two children were born upwards of eleven months after marriage,

marriage, but only three of the ten are living. The ages of the husband and wife together do not amount to 43 years.

Died lately. Mrs. Dorothy Collier, supposed to be the largest woman in the north of England; she weighed upwards of 30 stone, and yet was very active. Her coffin measured in length two yards two inches, in breadth a yard and four inches, and in depth two feet six inches.

William Hogarth, esq; the celebrated comic painter.

Mr. William Smith of Chichester, a celebrated fruit and flower painter.

Mr. Parmentier, an attorney in the Temple. He bequeathed to 12 hospitals of this city 100l. each, rings to the porters plying at the Inner-Temple gate, and had left to his shoe-black 20l. but the man not calling for three days, he ordered his name to be struck out.

Mrs. Morgan, of St. James's street, Westminster, aged 100.

Mrs. Martin, in St. James's street, Westminster, aged 100.

NOVEMBER.

6th. About a quarter past four in the morning, a slight, but alarming shock of an earthquake was felt at Oxford, the neighbouring towns and villages, at Cirencester in Gloucestershire, and in different parts of Berkshire and Wiltshire. It is agreed, that though the wind soon after became tempestuous, the morning was, at the time of the shock, perfectly calm and serene.

24th. A dreadful fire broke out in the workshop of a snuff-maker in Aldersgate-street, which consumed that and several other houses, together with the timber-yard of Mr. Hatton, valued at several thousand pounds. Many persons were hurt, and some lost their lives.

24th. After various attendances at the bar of the court of king's bench, in order to receive sentence for republishing the North Briton N° 45. Mr. Williams, the bookseller, was ordered to the king's bench prison, there to remain till next term, when he is to receive sentence. Some days after, Mr. Kearsley having likewise surrendered himself, in discharge of his bail, to receive sentence, for originally publishing the same paper, he was, like Mr. Williams, sent to the same jail, till the same time.

On a memorial being presented by the earl of Hertford to the French court, setting forth the illegal proceedings of the governor of Goree, in attempting to establish a settlement near the river Gambia, that court has declared its disapprobation of his proceedings, and he is recalled to give an account of his irregular behaviour.

A melancholy accident lately happened in a town called Birr, in Ireland. About six hours after a hole had been opened to clean a pump, a lad about twenty years old descended a ladder, and, when he had got about half way down, was suffocated by the damp; a man, who

who perceived him falling, inconſiderately followed him down, and fell likewiſe, when he got to the ſame depth; another man, who came up to the place as the ſecond perſon fell, ran down the ladder as haſtily as poſſible, and ſhared the ſame fate. The beſt and ſafeſt way to know if there is any danger in going down into ſuch places, is firſt to let down a lighted candle by a rope; for, if the candle goes out, it is a ſign there is at bottom ſome vapour prejudicial to animal life.

Intelligence has been received from Algiers, that Mr. Harriſon, commander of a ſmall Engliſh ſquadron, has terminated with the bey the differences which ſubſiſted on account of the taking of a veſſel bearing an Engliſh flag, and for which that commander had orders to demand ſatisfaction. The bey has reſtored the veſſel without requiring any money, which is thought very extraordinary, being contrary to the cuſtom of theſe pirates, to whom every thing appears lawful prize.

They write from Liſbon, that in digging up the foundation of an old palace, burnt in the late fire, the workmen found an urn containing three hundred gold medals of the emperor Titus, which appear to have been ſtruck ſoon after that prince's laſt expedition againſt the Jews, having this inſcription, TITO VESPASIANI AVGVSTI FILIO, JUDÆIS SVBACTIS.

Berlin, Nov. 20. The king has cauſed public notice to be given, that the fund of the bank, lately eſtabliſhed there, may conſiſt of 25.000,000 of dollars, to be divided into 100,000 actions of 250 dollars each, payable in gold at the opening, on the 1ſt of June, 1765. The grant is made out for thirty years.

His majeſty has lately publiſhed a decree, by which the lords of manors are enjoined to treat their tenants or farmers with more mildneſs and humanity than in time paſt, and not to deliver them over to military puniſhment; it being his majeſty's pleaſure that the military juriſdiction ſhould not be confounded with the civil; that each ſhould be confined within its own proper limits; and that that when a lord thinks himſelf injured in any reſpect by a tenant, he ſhall cauſe him to be brought before a magiſtrate, to be dealt with in the ordinary courſe of juſtice.

Very great quantities of ſaltpetre have been bought up in Ruſſia by the conſent of the empreſs, on account of his majeſty, to the excluſion of every other nation, inſomuch that a quantity already on board ſome Dutch and Engliſh veſſels was relanded, and delivered to the Pruſſian commiſſaries.

Munich, Nov. 21. By an ordinance of our ſovereign, publiſhed on the 13th, for reviving and extending the mortmain law of 1672; it is ordered, that no convents or eccleſiaſtical communities ſhall, under any pretext whatever, whether for the purpoſe of maſſes, anniverſaries, pious works, or exerciſes of devotion, obtain a title for more than 2000 florins at

any one time, either in money or effects. That no one perſon ſhall make a ſecond donation, ſo as to exceed that ſum. That no penſion to a relation who has taken the vows, ſhall be above 100 florins a year, and then to revert back to the lawful heirs. And all eſtates of inheritance, which ſhall fall to a religious, ſhall likewiſe go to the heirs. The foundling hoſpitals, eſtabliſhments for the poor and ſick, pariſh churches, eccleſiaſtical ſeminaries, ſchools and benefices founded by ſecular prieſts, and eſtates in foreign countries, are excepted in this ordinance. Fraternities approved by the ſovereign are not to acquire more than 50 florins at a time. Offences againſt this ordinance are to be puniſhed by a fine of double the ſum obtained over and above the allowance of 2000 florins.

His Poliſh majeſty has ordered the Pruſſian code to be tranſlated into Latin, and printed at Warſaw at the public expence; after which it is propoſed to offer both pecuniary and honorary rewards, to the beſt deviſer of a body of laws, founded on the brevity of the Pruſſian code, but adapted to the genius and conſtitution of the Poles. By the Pruſſian code, no law-ſuit can laſt beyond a year and a day.

Konigſberg, Nov. 19. Yeſterday evening, about ſeven o'clock, a terrible fire, occaſioned by lightning, broke out here in a ſail-ſhop, near the herring wharf, where it immediately deſtroyed about 3000 barrels of that fiſh; and, running along the quay, conſumed the hemp, flax, and other ware-houſes filled with all ſorts of merchandize. The conflagration then ſpread over the Kniphorff, the old town, and the Levenhaupt, where it burned with an irreſiſtible rapidity, reducing to aſhes all the houſes, hoſpitals, churches, and public buildings. Numbers of people, particularly the ſick in the royal hoſpital, and thoſe attempting to aſſiſt them, periſhed in the flames. The ſurvivors are reduced to the greateſt want and miſery. The violence of the fire was ſo great, that pieces of timber were found kindled at the diſtance of two leagues, to which they had been driven by it. The lighted bundles of paper, ſcattered over the neighbouring woods, caſt forth ſo great a blaze, as to be ſeen diſtinctly at Dantzig, though 48 miles off.

Turin, Nov. 10. The male-contents of Corſica, finding their progreſs in the attack of St. Fiorenzo did not promiſe them a ſpeedy ſucceſs, raiſed the ſiege of that place laſt week, and have retired to the interior parts of the country. They have, however, on account of the daily expected arrival of French troops to the aſſiſtance of Genoa, renewed the following manifeſto, ſaid to have been ſworn to by Paoli and his adherents, in the year 1734.

"We have ſworn, and we call upon God to witneſs it, that we will all of us ſooner die than enter into any negotiation with the republic of Genoa, or return under its yoke. If the powers of

of Europe, and the French in particular, withdrawing their compaſſion from an unhappy people, ſhould arm themſelves againſt us, and concur in our total deſtruction, we will repel force by force; we will fight like deſperate men, determined either to conquer or die, till our ſtrength and ſpirits being quite exhauſted, our arms fall out of our hands; and, when we have no ſtrength to take them up again, when all the reſources of our courage ſhall be exhauſted, our deſpair ſhall furniſh us with the laſt, which ſhall be to imitate the famous example of the Saguntines, by ruſhing voluntarily into the fire, rather than ſubmit ourſelves, and our poſterity, to the inſupportable yoke of Genoeſe tyranny and ſlavery."

Rebecca Parferry of Newton, near Bury, Suffolk, was lately delivered of three daughters.

Died lately. The reverend Mr. Churchill, the celebrated ſatyriſt, at Boulogne, on a viſit to Mr. Wilkes.

Mr. Robert Lloyd, author of the Actor, the Capricious Lovers, and ſeveral other ingenious pieces; he was ſo much affected on hearing of the death of Mr. Churchill, that it is ſaid to have brought on the illneſs, which ended in his death.

Mr. Lock, at Broughton Poys, Oxfordſhire, aged 100.

Mrs. Alice Fort, in Cambridgeſhire, aged 100.

Mary Frances, of Moorfields, aged 102.

Eleanor Huut, at Lydd, in Kent, aged 103.

Mrs. Pelican, of Cork, aged 105.

John Ridge, at Newark, Glouceſterſhire, aged 107.

At Newent in Glouceſterſhire, Joſeph Budge, a taylor, aged 107. He retained all his faculties till a few hours before his death. He had had two wives, by whom he had children, grand children, and great grand children, to the number of 102, and by his laſt wife three children born after he was 80, the laſt of which when he was 85. Some time before his death he loſt the nails of his hands and feet, and afterwards had new ones, the ſame as a young infant; and, till about a year before his death, he had his mouth full of teeth, ſound and good.

Matthew Hubert, at Birr, Ireland, aged 121.

At Duleek, in the county of Meath, Owen Carollan, labourer, aged 127. He had ſix fingers on each hand, and ſix toes on each foot; he was never blooded, and an entire ſtranger to ſickneſs.

DECEMBER.

Came on before lord chief juſtice Mansfield, and a ſpecial jury, in the court of king's bench, a remarkable cauſe, in which a country tradeſman was plaintiff, and a merchant of London, defendant; the tradeſman had taken in the country, for a valuable conſideration, a banker's note payable to bearer, of which note the merchant had his pocket pickt about twelve months ago in London, and had ſtopt payment; but 6th.

but the note being confeſſedly a genuine note, and no forgery, a verdict was given for the country tradeſman, with coſts of ſuit. It is remarkable, that this affair was tried ſome months ſince in the ſame court, before a ſpecial jury alſo, who gave a verdict for the defendant.

10th. Was heard before the lord high chancellor, in Lincoln's-Inn hall, a very intereſting cauſe, wherein a Yorkſhire lady was plaintiff, and James Reilly, a reputed Antinomian preacher, and others, were defendants. The cancelling of an annuity deed of 50l. for the life of the defendant Reilly, fraudulently obtained by him without valuable conſideration, from a perſon labouring under a temporary enthuſiaſtical frenzy; and the refunding a conſiderable ſum of money, obtained under the like circumſtance, were prayed; when, after a full hearing of council, his lordſhip was pleaſed, to the extreme ſatisfaction of a crowded hall, to decree in favour of the plaintiff.

11th. Came on a remarkable cauſe in Weſtminſter-hall, wherein a magiſtrate for the county of Middleſex was plaintiff, and another magiſtrate for the city and liberty of Weſtminſter, defendant, in an action of falſe impriſonment and confinement of the former by the latter for upwards of two hours; when, after a full hearing, and ſeveral learned arguments on both ſides, a verdict was given for the plaintiff, with 5ol. damages, and full coſts of ſuit.

Came on in the court of common pleas, at Weſtminſter-hall, before the lord chief juſtice Pratt, and a ſpecial jury, a cauſe where Mr. Arthur Beardmore, an eminnent attorney at law, was plaintiff, and the right honourable the earl of Halifax defendant, in an action for falſe impriſonment in a meſſenger's houſe; when, after a hearing of eight hours, the jury withdrew, and in about three quarters of an hour brought in a verdict for the plaintiff, with 1500l. damages.

And the day following came on the ſeveral cauſes, wherein the reverend Mr. Entick, Meſſrs. Fell and Wilſon, bookſellers, and Mr. Meredith, clerk to Mr. Beardmore, were plaintiffs, and the earl of Halifax and others, defendants, by four different juries; when Mr. Entick had a verdict of 20l. Mr. Fell of 10l. Mr. Wilſon of 40 l. and Mr. Meredith of 200l.

In relation to Mr. Beardmore's having 1500l. damages given againſt the earl of Halifax, it ſhould be obſerved, that on a former trial he had 1000l. againſt the meſſengers, and that the verdict for the 1500l. included the firſt 1000l. by which the earl of Halifax is made liable to make good the verdict againſt the meſſengers. Mr. Entick had only 20l. damages, as he had already received ſatisfaction for the 300l. given in his cauſe againſt the meſſengers on a former trial.

The warrants upon which the plaintiffs were apprehended and detained, were determined to be legal in

in these actions, and the verdicts were grounded for detaining the plaintiffs longer than was thought necessary, before they were examined.

17th. A cause came on in the court of common pleas, between John Monro, a gentleman from North America, plaintiff, and capt. Houlton of the royal navy, defendant. The action was for illegally confining the plaintiff on board one of his majesty's ships at Nova Scotia above six months. The jury gave a verdict for the plaintiff with 400l. damages.

Ended the sessions at the Old Bailey, at which nine were capitally convicted; one of them for murdering his reputed wife; another, John Weskett, on the evidence of John Bradley an accomplice, for stealing out of the dwelling house of the earl of Harrington two bank notes, value 130l. 400l. in money; a gold watch, three gold snuff-boxes, and several other valuable articles, the property of his lordship. James Cooper, with whom Bradley lodged, was found guilty of receiving a part of the said goods, and sentenced to be transported for 14 years. [For an account of this robbery, and the manner in which it was discovered, see our Appendix.]

At this sessions Sarah Lane, otherwise Sarah, wife of William Merchant; otherwise Sarah, wife of Thomas Flint; otherwise Sarah, wife of Thomas Morgan; otherwise Sarah, wife of Adam Steadman; was indicted for bigamy, to which she pleaded guilty, and was sentenced to be branded in the hand. She had before been indicted for shop-lifting, and acquitted; but on her trial for bigamy, it was expected that many thefts would have appeared, to prevent which she artfully pleaded guilty.

John Fetch, a baker in White-cross-street, was convicted before Sir John Fielding, for having in his bake-house a quantity of allum, which was adjudged by that magistrate to have been lodged there with an intent to adulterate the purity of meal, flour, and bread, contrary to the statute; upon which he paid the penalty of four pounds for that offence, being a mitigation of the penalty of 10l. forfeited by the act. We mention this fact to caution our readers against such abuses, and likewise remind them of an association entered into, during a scarcity of bread at the beginning of the last war, by the workmen in some of his majesty's dock yards, for erecting a baking to supply themselves with bread at a cheap rate, which they effected. Are not such associations amongst private families equaly necessary, and may not they be equally effectual, in procuring a supply of wholesome bread? 21st.

Some time this month a spermaceti whale was thrown ashore on the flats at Sea Salter, near Whitstable in Kent, whose extreme length was fifty-four feet, and girt in the broadest part, over back and belly, thirty-eight.

At the meeting of the creditors of Mr. Kearsley, the original publisher of the North Briton, N° 45. the celebrated Mr. Foote appeared as a creditor, and was of no little service to the bankrupt by throwing the rest of the creditors

ditors into a good humour; he opened the conference in his facetious manner with, *Gentlemen, it is a very common case for a bookseller to be seen among the creditors of an author; but for once! strange to tell! you see an author among the creditors of a bookseller.*

31st. The Spanish court has refused to accept the ransom bills drawn on it by the archbishop and governor of Manilla, on pretence of a breach in the capitulation of that place; which, being so unusual a charge against English troops, we think it our duty to give an abstract of a letter of colonel Draper's to lord Hallifax in refutation of it, in the Appendix to this part of our work.

The Swedes, it seems, have but just begun to cultivate potatoes, notwithstanding the indefatigable industry of the great Linnæus. A royal edict, however, is now issued to encourage their cultivation.

About the beginning of this year the plague broke out in the city of Spalato, capital of Venetian Dalmatia, and was soon followed by a famine, by which, though it was hindered from spreading far, and now and then appeared to have totally ceased, that country lost a great number of its inhabitants. Nor is there any certainty of its being yet entirely subdued.

Letters received by the society for promoting christian knowledge from Madrais in the East Indies, May 25, 1763, contain an account, that their missionaries had stretched a great way into the country among the heathens, making many proselytes. Those missionaries say, that the reverend Dr. Francke, in Germany, had sent them a number of Tamulian types, with a promise of more, which they were to be enabled to use; the government having erected a a printing-office in the city of Madrass, and given the care and inspection of the same to them.

Paris, Dec. 7. An edict has just been registered in parliament, whereby his majesty dissolves the society of Jesuits for ever; but permits them, nevertheless, to reside in his kingdom as individuals, under subjection to the spiritual superiors of the places where they reside, and on conforming themselves to the laws, and behaving in all respects as becomes good subjects. By the same edict an entire and perpetual stop is put to all criminal proceedings, that have been commenced against them on any account whatsoever.

Our academy of sciences has approved a new method of silvering brass, &c. by a silver powder, applied in form of a thick paste, and so thoroughly fixed by means of fire, that the work thus silvered will bear being touched up by the graver.

Turin, Nov. 20. On the 23d ult. Dr. Tronchin, of Geneva, inoculated prince Ferdinand, who is perfectly recovered; in consequence of which, the doctor, though a protestant, is appointed first physician to his royal highness. The corporation of Parma have desired leave of his royal highness to admit the doctor, and his descendants, into the order of noble citizens, and to erect his statue in the town-hall; also to strike a gold medal, on one side of

of which is the doctor's effigies, and on the reverse a rapid river, in which several swimmers, endeavouring to cross it, are carried away with the stream, while a man on the bank shews another in a little boat, in which they may safely get over; the motto *tutissimus ibis*. The corporation of Placentia have also desired leave to enroll this celebrated physician among their noble citizens; and this request, as well as those of the inhabitants of Parma, has been granted.

Bastia, Nov. 15. The 23d ult. the principal of the malecontents met to deliberate on the expected arrival of French troops in this island; and the result of their deliberations was, that, tho' his most christian majesty's intention seemed to be only to defend the places which the Genoese are possessed of in that island, they thought it necessary for the public safety to take the follow precautions:

First, That a military committee, composed of subjects from each of the provinces, be formed, in order to inforce the observation of the regulations, which forbid all communication between the free inhabitants of Corsica, and those of the places belonging to the free Genoese. Secondly, that the French be prohibited coming into the country on any pretence whatsoever. Thirdly, that all proposals for peace with the republic shall be absolutely rejected, unless she will previously agree to the preliminaries proposed in the general assembly at Casinca, 1761. Fourthly, that Pacal Paoli shall be charged to make, in the name of the whole country, the most respectful remonstrances to his most christian majesty, upon the damage he will do the country, by sending his troops at a time, when the Corsicans were upon the point of driving the enemy intirely out of the island. Fifthly, that, in order to give weight to these representations, Paoli shall be charged at the same time, to apply to the powers in friendship with this country, for their mediation with his most christian majesty, and to implore their protection, for the defence of their rights and liberties.—The French troops have since arrived in Corsica.

Brunswick, Dec. 3. This day her royal highness the hereditary princess was safely delivered of a princess, and her royal highness, and the young princess, are both as well as can be wished.

Berlin, Dec. 14. By an express, just arived, we have the disagreeable news, that the whole town of Fendenthal, in the Upper Silesia, except 26 houses, is reduced to ashes. The fire broke out the 11th of this month early in the evening, and was not got under till the next day at noon. Even the ramparts are destroyed, and all the ammunition and provision lodged in the storehouses and caverns are consumed. The town-hall, the public school, and church, with its fine altar, pictures, and relicks, amongst which were the bones of St. Constance, all fell a prey to the flames. The shops of the foreign merchants who came to attend the fair, which was to have been opened there the very next day, had the same fate with all the rich goods and effects which they contained.

tained. No body has been able to ſave any thing; vaſt numbers of thoſe who were ſurpriſed by the flames miſerably periſhed in them, and the reſt, as there was but one gate free, had a great deal of difficulty to ſave themſelves. Thoſe, whom the fire has ſpared, are expoſed to the cruel horrors of want and miſery.

The mathematical prize queſtion propoſed by our academy of ſciences, is, *An explanation of the principle whereby water is raiſed by the machine commonly called Archimedes's ſcrew, together with the means of improving this machine.* The prize is a gold medal of fifty ducats weight. The memoirs are to be tranſmitted to M. Formey, perpetual ſecretary to the academy, before the 1ſt of January, 1766, and the academy's judgment will be declared at the public meeting on the 31ſt of May, of the ſame year. The authors are deſired, inſtead of naming themſelves, only to put a motto to their memoir, adding a ſealed note, containing the motto, and their addreſs.

The fumigating of cattle with burning tar has been diſcovered to be a preſervative againſt the infection which has raged in many parts of Germany.

Warſaw, Nov. 17. Our new king ſeems to abhor all exceſs in luxury. His majeſty having ordered his ſhoe-maker to be ſent for, was ſoon after extremely ſurpriſed to ſee enter his apartment, in order to take meaſure of him, a man dreſſed in embroidered velvet. He was, it's true, the court ſhoe-maker; but his majeſty diſmiſſed him, without permitting him to exerciſe, in that ſumptuous habit, the noble and brilliant functions of his office, ſaying at the ſame time, ſeemingly in good-humour however, *What cloaths muſt I wear, if people of your profeſſion dreſs in this manner?*

The beginning of this year, Harvard college, in New England, was entirely deſtroyed by fire, with the public library, philoſophical apparatus, &c. to the immenſe and almoſt irreparable loſs of the province and all North America. The general aſſembly have agreed to rebuild it, and a collection has been made to endow it.

Mrs. Smith, wife of a journeyman carpenter, aged 63, was lately delivered of a ſon.

The wife of Mr. William Plomer, clerk to Mr. Willet, in Corn-ſtreet, Briſtol, was lately delivered of a girl, and in about twelve hours after of two more girls and a boy. They were baptized by the names of Hannah, Sarah, Mary, and William. The children were larger than many twins; they at firſt ſeemed hearty and likely to live, but died ſome days after.

Died lately. The hon. Thomas Hancock, eſq; at Boſton in New England. He has left 1000l. ſterling for founding a profeſſorſhip of the Hebrew and other Oriental languages, in Harvard college in Cambridge; 1000l. lawful money to the ſociety incorporated by an act of this province for propagating the goſpel among the Indians in North America; 600l. to the town of Boſton, towards erecting an hoſpital for the reception of ſuch perſons as are deprived of their reaſon; and 200l. to the ſociety for carrying on the linen manufacture.

Mrs. Carter at Dublin, aged 104.

Mrs. Moor, at Enneſkellen, Scotland, aged 120.

A general bill of chriſtenings and burials in London, from December 13, 1763, to December 11, 1764.

Chriſtened		Buried	
Males	8593	Males	11503
Females	8208	Females	11699
	16801		23202

Decreaſed in the burials this year 2941.

Died under 2 years of age		7673
Between 2 and	5	2026
5 and	10	939
10 and	20	877
20 and	30	2000
30 and	40	2228
40 and	50	2403
50 and	60	1823
60 and	70	1607
70 and	80	1099
80 and	90	471
90 and	100	53
	101	1
	104	2
		23202

Supplement to the bills of births, &c. for the year 1763, at the end of our Chronicle for that year.

Dantzick, Chriſtenings 2005. Burials 1888. Weddings 618.

Gotha, Births 372. Deaths 302. Marriages 68.

Konigſberg, Births 1987. Burials 1818. Marriages 993

Magdeburgh, Births 941. Deaths 1116. Marriages 263.

Mecklenburgh Schwerin. The four cities of Schwerin, Roſtock, Guſtrow, and Parchim. Births 816. Deaths 700. Marriages 370.

Norwich, Chriſtened, males 537, females 496, total 1033. Buried, males 544, females 543, in all 1087.

Paris, Burials 20,171. Weddings 4479. Chriſtenings 17,456. Foundlings 5153.

Pruſſian Pomeranias, Births 11,072. Deaths 9100. Marriages 3422.

Vienna, Births 5879. Deaths 8479.

By a medium of the births and burials at Paris, it has been made appear, that one fifth of the children born there is ſent to the foundling-hoſpital; and one third of the people, who die there, die in an hoſpital.

This ſo extraordinary a circumſtance is to be attributed to the indiſcriminate reception of all the children ſent to the foundling-hoſpital, and of all the ſick that preſent themſelves at the Hotel-Dieu, whatever age, ſex, country, or religion they may be of, or whatever their complaint may be, and likewiſe to the extraordinary poverty of the loweſt claſs of inhabitants; notwithſtanding which poverty they marry more than in England, or perhaps elſewhere, not only on account of the ſtrictneſs of the police, by which licentiouſneſs of every kind is more reſtrained than with us, but becauſe married men are exempted from ſerving in the militia, from which

draughts are generally made to recruit the ſtanding army.

BIRTHS for the year 1764.

Jan. 31ſt. *lately*, Lady Brabazon, of a daughter.
Feb. 6. The princeſs Naſſau Weilbourg, ſiſter of the ſtadtholder, of a daughter.
20. lady Catherine Beauclerk, of a daughter.
21. lady of the hon. Tho. Townſhend, of a ſon.
23. counteſs of Elgin, of a ſon.
Mar. 19. Counteſs of Fingal, of a daughter.
22. lady Mary Walker, of a ſon.
31. *lately*, ducheſs of Savoy, of a princeſs.
lady Hardy, of a daught.
Apr. 3. the Dauphineſs, of a princeſs.
7. lady Gibbons, of a ſon.
lady Legard, of a ſon.
lady Graham, of a ſon.
30. lady Grey, of a daughter.
May 9. Lady Betty Parſons, of two boys.
10. counteſs of Plimouth, of a ſon.
15. lady of the hon. Mr. Roper, of a ſon.
31. *lately* lady Dolben, of a daughter.
June 4. Lady Betty Gallini, of a daughter.
6. lady Middleton, of a daughter.
9. lady of the hon. judge Bathurſt, of a daughter.
17. lady of the hon. John Bentinck, of a ſon.
lady Digby, of a ſon.
30. lady of lord George Sackville, of a daughter.
July 11. Lady of Sir John Hynde Cotton, bart. of two ſons.
17. ducheſs of Grafton, of a ſon.
21. lady of the hon. col. Fitzroy, of a ſon.
31. *lately*, counteſs of Sutherland, of a daughter.
viſcounteſs Powerſcourt, of a ſon.
lady Bampfylde, of a da.
lady of the hon. Tho. Pelham, of a daughter.
Aug. 5. Counteſs of Lauderdale, of a ſon.
7. ducheſs of Ancaſter, of a daughter.
11. lady Arundel, of a daught.
15. counteſs of Northeſk, of a daughter.
27. The hon. lady Blois, of a daughter.
31. lady Aſhley, of a ſon.
Sept. 13. Lady Edgcumbe, of a ſon.
24. The hon. Mrs. Hill, of a daughter.
30. The hon. Mrs. Bagot, of daughter.
lady of Sir Harry St. John, of a ſon.
31. *lately*, lady of the hon. Morgan Vane, of a daughter.
lady Arundel of Wardour, of a daughter.
Oct. 17. Lady Townley, of a ſon.
20. lady St. John, of a ſon.
lady Whiteford, of a ſon.
28. lady Pococke, of a daughter.
Nov. 8. Lady of the hon. Mr. Cary, of a daughter.
16. viſ-

16. viſcounteſs Downe, of a ſon.

30. *lately*, lady Clive, of a daughter.

Dec. 2. Ducheſs of Athol, of a daughter.

5. lady of Sir William Beauchamp Proctor, of a daughter.

20. ducheſs of Marlborough, of a daughter.

21. lady Juliana Penn, of a daughter.

MARRIAGES.

Feb. 4. Sir George Warren, knt. of the Bath, to miſs Biſhop, daughter to ſir Cecil Biſhop, and one of the maids of honour to the queen.

21. The archduke Leopold, to an infanta of Spain.

Sir Robert Throckmorton, bart. to miſs Heywood of George-ſtreet Hanover-ſquare.

25. The hon. col. Weſt, to lady Mary Grey, only daughter of the earl of Stamford.

Sir Wm. Maxwell of Sprintwell in Scotland, to miſs Stewart of Blackall.

Apr. 7. Sir Roderick Mc Kenſie, to miſs Colquhoun of Luſs in Scotland.

30. The earl of Pomfret, to miſs Draycote of Saville-row.

John Milburn of Argyle-buildings, eſq; to lady Martha Harley, daughter to the counteſs dowager of Oxford.

May 19. Lord Roſeberry, to miſs Ward of Hanover-ſquare.

31. *lately*, Joſeph Henry, eſq; to lady Cath. Rawdon

John Millibank of Cavendiſh-ſquare, eſq; to lady Charlotte Wentworth, daugther to the late marquis of Rockingham.

June 7. The marq. of Taviſtock, to lady Elizabeth Keppel.

Sir James Lake, bart. to miſs Crowther.

20. Maurice Suckling, eſq; to the hon. miſs Maria Walpole.

July 2. Lord Warkworth, to lady Anne Stuart.

19. lord Groſvenor, to miſs Vernon.

Sir Charles Will. Blunt, bart. to miſs Peers.

31. *lately*, lord Garlies, to miſs Daſhwood.

Hon. Mr. Rochford, to miſs Mervin.

Sir John Eden, bart. to miſs Kitty Thompſon.

Maurice Fitzgerald, eſq; to lady Anne Fitz-Maurice.

Aug. 25. The earl of Cork, to the honourable miſs Courtenay.

Sept. 26. Right honourable earl of Coventry, to the honourable miſs Barbara St. John.

Oct. 11. Sir Thomas Pym Hales, of Beakeſbourn, Kent, to Mrs. Couſſmaker of Dane court.

23. rev. Mr. Daſhwood, late of Magdalen-college, to the youngeſt daughter of the earl of Banbury.

Nov. 4. The hon. George Sempil, eſq; to miſs Clive, ſiſter to lord Clive.

Sir James Maxwell of Pollock, bart. to miſs Colquhoun of St. Kitt's.

Dec. 16. Hon. Marmaduke Mervil, esq; at Bath, to miss Morgan of Swansea.

27. Sir John Cathcart of Carleton, Scotland, bart. to miss Hamilton of Bourtreehill.

Principal PROMOTIONS for the YEAR 1764, from the London Gazette, &c.

Jan. 22. William Horton of Chaderton, Lancashire, and his heirs male, a bart.—George Bridges Rodney, esq; vice admiral of the blue, and his heirs male, the same dignity.—Geo. Cockburne, Thomas Slade, William Bately, Edm. Mason, Tim. Brett, Robert Osborne, and William Bateman, esqrs; Sir Richard Temple, bart. Fred. Rogers, Richard Hughes, and Thomas Hanway, esqrs; commissioners of the navy.—Andrew Elliot, esq; receiver of all duties, dues, and revenues, at New York, (the revenues of the customs excepted.)

— 28. The earl of Marchmont, keeper of the great seal of Scotland, in the room of the duke of Athol, dec.—Lord Cathcart, first commissioner of the police, in the room of the earl of Marchmont.—Henry Moore of Jamaica, esq; and his heirs male, a baronet.

Feb. 11. Daniel Bomeester, gent. consul at Carthagena.

— 21. The marq. of Granby, lord lieutenant and custos rot. of Derbyshire, in the room of the duke of Devonshire.

March 31. Robert Melvill, esq; governor of the isles of Granada, the Grenadines, Dominica, St. Vincent and Tobago.—Hugh Palliser, esq; governor of Newfoundland, &c.

Apr. 3. Philip Stanhope, esq; envoy extraordinary to the court of Dresden, and William Gordon esq; minister at Ratisbon.

— 20. Geo. James Bruere, esq; governor of the Bermuda islands.

— 28. Basil Cochran, esq; a commissioner of the customs in Scotland, in the room of R. Montgomerie, esq; and Thomas Lockhart, esq; a commissioner of excise in the room of B. Cochran, esq;

May 19. The right. hon. Robert lord Henley, baron of Grange in the county of Southampton, chancellor of Great Britain, and his heirs male, an earl of Great Britain, by the name, stile, and title of earl of Northington in the said county.—William Young, Alexander Græme, John Hunt, Robert Stewart, and Rob. Wynne, esqrs. commissioners for the sale of lands in the islands of Grenada, Grenadines, Dominica, St. Vincent, and Tobago.

— 22. The right rev. doct. Richard Terrick, bishop of Peterborough, bishop of London.

— 29. William Young, esq; receiver of all the monies arising by the sale of lands, in the islands of Grenada, &c.

— 31. *lately*, Norborne Berkeley, esq; late knight of the shire for the county of Glocester, obtained the peerage of Bottetourt by appeal to the right hon. the house of peers, after a hearing of council seven days, in favour of the appeal.—His lordship has since taken the oaths, and his seat in the house of lords.

June 10. The hon. Robert Walpole, one of the clerks of the privy

privy council, in the room of Mr. Fane, who has reſigned.

— 12. Dr. Robert Lamb, dean of Peterborough, biſhop of that ſee, in the room of biſhop Terrick, tranſlated to the ſee of London.

— 16. Sir Edward King, bart. baron Kingſton, of Rockingham, in the county of Roſcommon in the kingdom of Ireland, with remainder to his iſſue male. —Sir Ralph Gore, bart. baron Gore, of Manor Gore in the county of Donegal, in the ſame kingdom, with like remainder.—Stephen Moore, eſq; baron Kilworth, of Moore Park, in the county of Cork, in the ſame kingdom, with like remainder.

July 11. Richard Orlebar, eſq; a clerk of the privy council in extraordinary.

—31. *lately*, Dr. Smith maſter of Weſtminſter ſchool, in the room of Dr. Hinchliffe, who reſigned.

Aug. 9. George Amyand, of London, merchant, William Duncan, of Marybone, M. D. and ſir Samuel Gordon, at Newark upon Trent knight, baronets.

— 17. The earl of Powis lord lieutenant of the county of Salop. — The reverend William Lowther, M. A. of Swillington, Yorkſhire, and his heirs male, a bart.

— 21. The earl of Northington, lord lieutenant of the county of Southampton, and the town and county of the town of Southampton.

— 31. *lately*, John Gore, eſq; ſolicitor general in Ireland, chief juſtice of the king's bench, in that kingdom. — George Macartney, eſq; envoy extraordinary to the court of Ruſſia.

Oct. 19. The earl of Eſſex, lord lieutenant of Hertfordſhire.

— 30. *lately*, Major general Thomas Gage, commander in chief of the forces in North America, in the room of major general Amherſt.

Nov. 12. Joſiah Hardy, eſq; conſul at Cadiz and Port St. Mary.—The ſieur dePaſſow approved of conſul for Denmark in the ports of England, &c.

— 17. His royal highneſs prince William Henry, ſecond brother to his majeſty, duke of Glouceſter and Edinburgh, in Great Britain, and earl of Connaught, in Ireland.—Edward Legrand, eſq; treaſurer, colonels Clinton and Ligonier, grooms of the bed-chamber, captains Cox and Blackwood, equerries, and the reverend Mr. Duval, ſecretary, to his royal highneſs.

— 23. George Pigot, eſq; late governor of Fort St. George, a baronet, with remainder to his two brothers.

— 30. *lately*, The earl of Thomond, lord lieutenant and cuſtos rotulorum of Somerſetſhire.

Dec. 4. Sir Thomas Sewell, knight, maſter of the rolls, &c. and ſoon after a privy counſellor.

— 22. Montfort Brown, eſq; lieutenant governor of Weſt-Florida.—John earl of Hyndford, vice-admiral of Scotland, and the earl Northumberland, vice-admiral of all America.

— 31. *lately*. Mr. Yorke received a patent of precedence, by which he takes place at the bar, next to the attorney general.

DEATHS.

DEATHS. 1764.

January 2. The right hon. Nicholas, viſcount Loftus, of the kingdom of Ireland, ſucceeded in title and eſtate by his eldeſt ſon the honourable Nicholas Loftus, eſq;

8. His grace James duke of Athol, baron Strange, lord of Man and the iſles, &c. &c. aged 74. He is ſucceeded in his Scotch titles and eſtate by his nephew the honourable John Murray, and in his barony of Strange and lordſhip of Man, by his daughter, lady Charlotte Murray, wife of the ſaid honourable John Murray, now duke of Athol.

The relict of ſir Thomas Tempeſt of Tong-hall, bart.

Sir John Rutherford of Rutherford, Scotland.

11. Sir Juſtus Dennis Beck, bart. the title is extinct.

14. Lady Gaſcoigne, daughter and heireſs of ſir Francis Hungate of Huddleſtone, bart. and mother of ſir Thomas Gaſcoigne.

17. The right hon. Hamilton Boyle, earl of Cork and Orrery, in Ireland, and lord Boyle of Marſton in England; who dying unmarried, is ſucceeded in his titles and eſtate by his brother the hon. Edmund Boyle, eſq;

27. The right hon. Charles, earl of Dalhouſie, ſucceeded by his brother the hon. George Ramſay, eſq;

31. *lately*, The lady viſcounteſs Liſburne.

The hon. Mrs. Cecil, relict of a late biſhop of Bangor.

February 6. Sir Jacob Gerard Downing, bart.

17. The right honourable Charles Moore, earl of Charleville in Ireland.

26. Sir William Skipwith, of Preſtwood, in Virginia, bart.

March 3. The dowager lady Vandeput, mother of ſir George Vandeput.

6. The right hon. Philip Yorke, earl of Hardwicke, viſcount Royſton, high ſteward of the univerſity of Cambridge, &c. aged 73, ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon, Philip, lord viſc. Royſton. March 23, 1720, he was appointed ſolicitor general, and Jan. 31, 1723, attorney-general. In October 1733, he was conſtituted lord chief juſtice of the king's bench; and Feb. 21, 1736-7, lord high chancellor, which high office he reſigned in 1756. In July 1749, he was choſen high ſteward of the univerſity of Cambridge. His lordſhip married Margaret, one of the daughters of Charles Cocks, of Worceſter, eſq; by whom he had five ſons and two daughters, viz. 1. Philip, lord viſc. Royſton. 2. The hon. Charles Yorke, late attorney general. 3. The honourable ſir Joſeph Yorke, now ambaſſador at the Hague. 4. The honourable John Yorke, member for Higham Ferrers, in Northamptonſhire. 5. The hon. and rev. James Yorke, dean of Lincoln. His lordſhip's two daughters were, lady Elizabeth, married to George lord Anſon, who died June 1, 1760; and lady Margaret, married in 1749 to John Heathcote, eſq; ſon and heir of ſir John Heathcote, bart. [See his lordſhip's Character in the ſecond part of this vol. p. 278.]

The honourable miſs Tracey, ſiſter to lord Tracey.

10. The reverend ſir Nathaniel Edwards, bart. As he left no iſſue, the title is extinct.

12. The

12. The right honourable lord viſcount Townſhend, ſucceeded in title and eſtate by his eldeſt ſon George. May 24, 1753, his lordſhip was called up by writ to the houſe of peers, and was one of the gentlemen of the bedchamber to the king. In the ſame month he married Audrey, ſole heireſs of Edward Harriſon, eſq; late governor of Fort St. George, and by her had iſſue four ſons and a daughter, viz. 1. George, aged 40, commander in chief at taking Quebec, after the death of general Wolfe. 2. Charles, member, in the late and preſent parliament, for Harwich. 3. Edward, who died of the ſmall-pox. 4. Roger, killed during the laſt war in America. 5. Audrey, who died before Roger.

14. The right hon. George Cholmondeley, viſcount Malpas, member for Corf-caſtle, colonel of the 65th regiment of foot, and of the Cheſhire militia, and eldeſt ſon of the earl of Cholmondeley. At the battle of Fontenoy his lordſhip ſerved as a volunteer, and ſoon after was made aid-de-camp to general Ligonier, and had a company. In the rebellion in 1745 he was made lieut. col. of a regiment raiſed by his father, and ſerved in the laſt parliament for Bamber in Suſſex. He has left iſſue by Heſter, daughter of ſir Francis Edwards of Shrewſbury, one ſon and one daughter.

15. The only ſon of lord Carberry.

16. Sir William Mannock, of Giffords Hall, in Suffolk, bart. ſucceeded by an only ſon, now a minor.

17. The right hon. the earl of Macclesfield, one of the tellers of the exchequer, &c. &c. and preſident of the royal ſociety, ſucceeded in title and eſtate by his eldeſt ſon, the hon. Thomas, viſct. Parker, now earl of Macclesfield. His lordſhip firſt married Mary, eldeſt daughter of Ralph Lane, eſq; by whom he has left two ſons; by his ſecond wife he has left no iſſue.

18. Sir George Hare, bart. of Stow-hall, Norfolk. As he died a batchelor, the title is extinct.

25. The hon. Mrs. Hannah Nevil, aged aged 96, mother to the late lord Abergaveny.

lately, Lady Burdett, of York.—the hon. Mrs. Brudenell.—The reverend ſir Nath. Edwards, bart. rector of Weybridge, in Surry; the title is extinct.—Sir George Chalmers, bart. in the Eaſt-Indies.

April 13. Sir John Freke, of the kingdom of Ireland, bart.

15. The famous marchioneſs of Pompadour, in the 43d year of her age.

16. The right honourable Warden Flood, lord chief juſtice of the king's bench in Ireland.

May 5. Lord Woodhall, a ſenator of the college of juſtice, in Scotland.

6. The right honourable lord viſcount Powerſcourt, of Ireland, ſucceeded by his brother, the honourable Richard Wingfield, now viſcount Powerſcourt.

13. The right reverend doctor Thomas Osbaldeſton, lord biſhop of London, &c. &c. — The lady of ſir Charles Hotham, baronet.

16. Mrs. Smithſon, mother of the earl of Northumberland, aged 75.

17. The honourable Robert Dormer, eſquire, brother of lord Dormer,

Dormer. — The relict of sir George Dunbar, at Edinburgh.

19. The second daughter of viscount Weymouth.

31. Sir Gilbert Elliot, bar. in Scotland. — Lady Harry Pawlet, suddenly, at Bath.

lately, The relict of sir Francis Curzon, bart.

The right hon. Charles earl of Traquair, succeeded by his brother the honourable John Stewart, esquire, now earl of Traquair. — The right honourable lady Anne Moseley. — The right honourable lady viscountess Folkestone.

June 1. The lady of sir Richard Hilton, of Hilton-hall, bar.

23. The honourable lady Anne Fane, eldest daughter of the earl of Westmoreland.—The right honourable sir John Philipps, succeeded in title and estate by his only son, now Sir Richard Philipps, bart.

27. Sir Andrew Mitchel of West Shore, in Scotland, bart.

28. The right hon. lady visct. dowager Strangford.

30. *lately*, Lady Jane Jenoure, near Dunmow, aged 79.

July 7. Right honourable Thomas lord Holmes, baron of Kilmallock.

8. The right hon. Will. earl of Bath, lord lieut. and custos rot. of the county of Salop, F. R. S. and one of his majesty's most hon. privy council, aged 82. In July 1742, his lordship was created baron of Heyden, viscount Pulteney, and earl of Bath. As his lordship died without issue, the title is extinct; but his paternal estate devolves to his brother, lieut. general Harry Pulteney.

11. The right hon. James, earl of Findlater, vice admiral of Scotland.

12. Lord Campbell, son to the marquis of Lorn, in Scotland.

21. The lady of sir Harry Grey, bart.

28. Sir Charles Molyneux, of Teversal, in Nottinghamshire, bt. succeeded in his title and estate by his brother, William Molyneux, esq;

30. Rev. sir Hadley D'Oyley, bart.

31. *lately*, Sir Gilbert Elliott, of Stobbs, in Scotland, bart. — Sir John Stewart, of Granthilly, in North Britain, bart.—Sir William Dudley, of Clapton, in Northamptonshire, bart. the title is extinct.—The hon. capt. Sempil, at the Cape of Good Hope.—The right hon. viscountess dowager Mountgarret. — The hon. mrs. Curzon, sister of lord Scarsdale,— Sir Orlando Bridgman, bart. — The right hon. lady Irwin.

August 3. Her grace the duchess of Leeds, suddenly, while at dinner, at her seat in Hertfordshire.

11. The lady of the late lord Aston.

15. Lady Anne Dalston, in Yorkshire.

16. The hon. general Otway.

18. The lady of sir John Griffin.

23. The right hon. Henry Bilson Legge, esq; uncle to the earl of Dartmouth, some time chancellor of the exchequer, member for the county of Southampton, and F. R. S. at Tunbridge Wells, where he went for the recovery of his health.

26. The hon. Charles Monson, uncle of lord Monson.

27. The right hon. Richard Parsons,

Parſons, earl of Roſs in Ireland; the title is extinct. — The right hon. John lord Belhaven, ſucceeded by his brother James, now lord Belhaven.

28. Sir John Barnard, knt. lord mayor of London in the year 1737, and who repreſented that city in ſix parliaments, and was ſome time honoured with the title of father of the city; all which offices he filled with ſo much ſatisfaction to his fellow citizens, that they thought proper to expreſs their gratitude by erecting a ſtatue to his memory in the Royal Exchange.

Sept. 6. The reigning duke of Saxe-Saalfeld Cobourg, aged 67.

8. Sir Patrick Murray, bart. in Scotland.

11. The lady of ſir Thomas Frederick, bart.

18. The right hon. earl Cowper, lord lieut. and cuſtos rot. of Hertfordſhire. His lordſhip was the eldeſt ſon of lord chancellor Cowper, and is ſucceeded in his title and eſtate by his only ſon the right hon. George, viſc. Fordwich, born in 1738. — The lady of ſir Thomas Morgan, bart.

21. The right hon. the lady viſcounteſs Barrington. — The lady of ſir Charles Buck, bart. at Bath.

27. The right hon. John, lord Trevor, F. R. S. ſucceeded in title and eſtate by his brother, the hon. Robert Trevor Hampden, eſq;

30. *lately*, Sir William Douglas, of Glenbervie, bart. — The hon. Lewis Erſkine, brother of the earl of Buchan.

— Sir Patrick Murray, of Orchtertyre, in North Britain, bar. — Lady Aſhley, of Bath. —Sir William Hardres, of Hardres-court, in Kent, bart. the title is extinct.—The right hon. lady Fanny Montague, ſecond daughter of the earl of Halifax.

October 2. His grace the duke of Devonſhire, at the Spa in Germany. His grace was eldeſt ſon of William, the late duke, by Catharine, daughter of John Hoſkins, eſq; and in March 1748 married the lady Charlotte Boyle, heireſs of Richard, late earl of Burlington, by whom he had iſſue, 1. William, now duke of Devonſhire; 2. lord Richard; 3. lord George Henry; and 4. lady Dorothy. His grace, at his deceaſe, was lord high treaſurer and a privy counſellor of Ireland, governor of the county of Cork, knight of the garter; &c. but ſome time before had reſigned all his places on the Britiſh eſtabliſhment.

5. The right hon. lady Anne Hatton.

12. The lady of ſir William Hanham, bart.

26. Lady King, mother of lord Kingſton.

31. *lately*, Lady Morgan, wife of the member for Herefordſhire, —The hon. lady Ramſden, ſiſter of the late lord Lonſdale, and the laſt of that noble family.

November 3. The right hon. earl Paulet, viſcount Hinton, lord lieutenant and cuſtos rot. of Somerſetſhire, &c. dying a batchelor, he is ſucceeded in title and eſtate by his brother Vere.

5. Lady Lawſon, wife of ſir Henry Lawſon, bart.

10. The right hon. Fulwar, lord Craven, ſucceeded in title and eſtate by his brother William.

13. The right hon. ſir Thomas Clarke,

Clarke, knight, maſter of the rolls, and a privy counſellor. He is ſuppoſed to have died worth 200,000l. of which he has left 30,000l. to St. Luke's hoſpital, and the remainder, all to a few ſmall legacies, to the right hon. the earl of Macclesfield.

14. Sir Philip Chetwood, of Oakley, in Shropſhire, bart. ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon, John.

15. The lady of ſir Henry Lawſon, bart. Yorkſhire.

16. Lady Graham, wife of the late colonel Brown.

30. *lately*, Sir John Wynne, of Leeſewood, Flint, bart. — Mr. Charles Churchill, the celebrated poet and ſatyriſt, at Boulogne, on a viſit to Mr. Wilkes. — Mrs. Lowther, ſiſter of the late earl of Tyrone.

— Sir Nathaniel Thorold, of Harmſton, in Lincolnſhire, bart.

The Princeſs Sophia Auguſta, ſiſter of the king of Sweden, prioreſs of Quedlinbourg, aged 59.

December 2. The right hon. the lady viſcounteſs Irwin, one of the ladies of the bedchamber to the princeſs dowager of Wales.

5. The hon. Mrs. Lowther, mother of the preſent ſir James, and of the counteſs of Darlington, at Bath. — Sir John Sinclair, near Dalkeith, Scotland.

8. Her grace the ducheſs of Roxburgh.

15. Mr. Robert Lloyd, the celebrated poet.

17. The hon. lady Amelia Hotham, niece to the earl of Cheſterfield.

18. The right hon. lady Roſs.

19. His grace doctor George Stone, archbiſhop of Armagh, and primate of all Ireland.

21. The lady of ſir Will. Owen of Pembrokeſhire, bart. — The hon. William, ſon of lord Walpole of Wolterton.

28. The right hon. Henry earl of Shannon, viſcount Brandon, baron of Caſtlemartyr, and one of the lord juſtices in Ireland, aged 82.

31. *lately*, The celebrated biſhop of Pontoppidan, at Copenhagen.— Lady Anne Wolfe, aunt to the late general Wolfe.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX to the CHRONICLE.

Extract from a direction lately given to a jury in Dublin, by a learned judge of the court of King's Bench in Ireland, in an action brought, for false imprisonment.

Cavanagh against *Poole.* } May 15th, 1764. At *Nisi Prius* in B. R. in Ireland, an action of false imprisonment; and issue joined on the plea of Not Guilty.

Part of the judge's direction to the jury.

AS to the damages, I must observe, that in cases of injuries to particular persons, the law hath instituted civil actions for the recovery of such damages as the party has sustained by the injury; and the *quantum* of the damage the jury must determine, upon the circumstances of the evidence.

It often happens, that such injuries are involved in, or comprize, crimes of a public nature; but this consideration, as it really is in its self, ought to be kept distinct by juries; and the punishment of the crime, as it affects the public, and as an example to stop and deter others, belongs to another method of proceeding, (viz.) a prosecution on behalf of the public, under the prerogative of mercy dispensed by the crown.

In *civil* actions, therefore, juries ought only to take into consideration the damage sustained by the party. If they go farther, and, under pretence of giving damages to parties, really set up to punish public crimes, it is usurping on the constitution as to criminal jurisdictions, and must be attended with bad consequences to the fundamentals and ballance of our constitution; as indeed is, generally, the case of breaking any of the limits, which the law hath settled for the several offices in its administration. I have sometimes known juries fall, by mistake I presume, into a wrong behaviour in this particular; and they have made themselves censors of offences against public interest, when the law only appointed them arbitrators for valuing the private loss of the party.

Therefore is is expedient to warn you, that this action is not for punishing the usurpation of a jurisdiction by the court of conscience against law; the proceeding for this purpose must be in another method: but you are only to consider what damage the plaintiff has sustained by this arrest and imprisonment; and upon this point, you are properly to consider his condition in life, and what he hath suffered in person, property, or even fame and cha-

racter; and, on the whole, to proportion his compenſation to what you really think his loſs; but public intereſt or example are not proper for your conſideration on this occaſion.

His readineſs of ſubmiſſion to the warrant has been urged as a deſire to go to goal; and ſo, upon the principle of *Volenti non fit injuria*, preſſed as an argument to ſhew, he could not be hurt by it. This ſeems very ſtrained; for he could not avoid goal but by paying.

Make the plaintiff what, on your oaths, you think an amends for the damage he really ſuſtained; but public conſiderations of correction, puniſhment, or reformation, are not your buſineſs or duty at this time.

WESTMINSTER RACES.

1762—OCTOBER MEETING.

LORD Bute's *Favourite* (the noted Scotch ſtallion) won the king's plate; beating Mr. Pitt's famous horſe *Guide* (who had won ſeveral plates in different parts of England) and lord Temple's bald faced mare, *Moll-Gawky*.

Betts before ſtarting—*Favourite* againſt the field.

1763—SPRING MEETING.

Noblemen and gentlemens great ſubſcription.

Lord Bute's dun horſe, *Treaſurer* 1ſt.
Lord Holland's black horſe, *Paymaſter* 2d.
Lord Halifax's brown mare, *Falconer* 3d.
Sir Francis Daſhwood's ſorrel horſe, *Redſtreak* 4th.
Duke of Newcaſtle's grey horſe, *Smuggler*, aged, fell lame in running.
Marquiſs of Rockingham's *Swiſs* dr.
Lord Aſhburnham's *Ranger* ditto
Lord Kinnoul's *Lancaſter*, diſtanced, owing to his being rode in a *Pelham-bit*.
Duke of Devonſhire's *Old Whig*, ran out of the courſe.
Henry Bilſon Legge's *Southampton*, paid forfeit.
Mr. Wilkes's horſe, *Liberty*, rode by himſelf, took the lead at ſtarting; but being puſhed hard by Mr. Biſhop's black gelding, *Privilege*, fell down at the Devil's Ditch, and was no where.

1763—OCTOBER MEETING.

KING'S PLATE.

Duke of Bedford's horſe, *Preſident* 1ſt.
George Grenville's *Gentle Shepherd* 2d.
Lord Sandwich's *Jemmy Twitcher* 3d.
Lord Egmont's *King John* 4th.
Charles Townſhend's horſe, *Trimmer*, ran on the wrong ſide of the poſt.
Mr. Pitt's bay horſe, *Guide*, was in training for this match, and expected to enter at the poſt, but went off.
General A'Court's horſe, *Major*, col. Barré's *Governor*, and gene-

ral

ral Conway's *Dragoon*, paid forfeit.

Great expectations from lord Shelburn's colt, but he ran ruſty; and 'tis ſuppoſed he will not ſtart any more. Some knowing-ones, who had backed him for a conſiderable ſum, were taken in deep.

Mr. Luther's colt, four years old, weight 8ſt. 4lb. beat Mr. Conyer's *Freehold*, aged, weight 9ſt. —'Twas obſerved at ſtarting, that *Freehold* carried too much weight. However, it is thought he would have won the heat, had not a perſon, belonging to one of the public offices, croſſed the courſe whilſt he was running.

The ſweepſtakes, over the duke's courſe, was won hollow by lord Albemarle's *Havanna* from a great many others. But diſputes having ariſen, whether or not *Havanna* was duly qualified, part of the money is detained in the hands of the clerk of the courſe.

APRIL 11.

The ſecond great match was decided between the two famous Perſian horſes, Mr. Sulivan's *Leader*, and Lord Clive's *Nabob*. Though *Leader* won at the former meeting, yet he barely ſaved his diſtance this time.—'Tis ſaid this remarkable difference in his running, was owing to his having changed his rider.

Odds at ſtarting—Six to four on *Leader*.

A true copy of the race liſt.

Witneſs my hand,

HEBER, jun.

Heads of the militia bill, which received the royal aſſent on the 24th March 1764.

THE ſum of 20,cool. being granted to his majeſty, upon account, towards defraying the charge of pay and cloathing for the unembodied militia, for one year, from the 25th day of March, 1762; in order that the charge of pay and cloathing for ſuch militia may be duly and properly defrayed and ſatisfied.

Where the militia is or ſhall be raiſed, but not embodied, the receiver general of the county ſhall iſſue four months pay in advance, according to the eſtabliſhment of pay here ſet down; that is to ſay, for the pay of four calendar months in advance, at the rate of 6s. a day for each adjutant; 1s. each ſerjeant, with the addition of 2s. 6d. a week for each ſerjeant major; 6d. a day for each drummer, with the addition of 6d. a day for each drum major; five-pence a month for each private man and drummer, for defraying contingent expences; and alſo half a year's ſalary to the regimental and battalion clerks at the rate of 50l. a year, and allowances to the clerks of the general and ſubdiviſion meetings, at the rate of 5l. 5s. for each general meeting, and 30s. for each ſubdiviſion meeting; and pay for cloathing of the militia after the rate of 3l. 10s. for each ſerjeant, 2l. for each drummer, with the addition of 20s. for each ſerjeant major, and each drum major; and where the militia hath not already been cloathed, or not been cloathed within three years, 30s. for each private man.

The above ſums ſhall not be paid, if pay has not before been iſſued, till the lord lieutenant or deputies ſhall have certified to the treaſury and receivers general the inrolment of three fifths of the men and officers.

The money ſhall be iſſued by the receiver general to the clerk of the regiment or battalion (except the allowances to the clerks of meetings) upon producing the warrant of his appointment; and for independent companies, to the reſpective captains, or to their order; a ſecond payment ſhall alſo be made within three months after the firſt, and a third within three months after the ſecond. Receipts of the perſons to whom the money ſhall be ſo paid ſhall diſcharge the receivers general.

The regimental and battalion clerks ſhall pay and advance one month's pay to the adjutant, and two months pay to each captain, for the ſerjeants, ſerjeant major, drummers and drum major, and contingent expences of his company. Captains ſhall diſtribute the pay accordingly; and account for the ſame yearly to the clerk, or, if an independent company, to the receiver general; and pay back the ſurplus monies in his hands, except the contingent expences, which ſhall be accounted for, and applied to the general uſe of the regiment, &c. Captains of independent companies ſhall diſtribute the pay to their men, and apply the money allowed for contingent expences.

The clerk ſhall retain money in his hands for his own ſalary; and ſhall diſcharge the cloathing bills.

When the lord lieutenant and deputies ſhall have fixed the days of exerciſe, they ſhall certify the ſame to the receiver general, ſpecifying the number of men and days they ſhall be abſent from home. The receiver general ſhall iſſue thereupon pay for the men to the regimental clerk, &c. who ſhall pay over the ſame to the reſpective captains.

Captains ſhall make field returns to the commanding officer; and keep an account of every day's exerciſe, to be examined and compared with the return.

Captains ſhall make up their account of all monies received, by way of debtor and creditor, to be ſigned by them, and counterſigned by the commanding officer, and delivered with the ballance, to the clerk, or receiver general; which accounts ſhall be allowed to be ſufficient vouchers at the receipt of the exchequer.

During the time the troops are embodied, and called out into actual ſervice, and receive pay as the king's other forces, all pay from the receivers general ſhall ceaſe.

The clerk of the general meetings ſhall be paid his allowance, upon producing an order from the lord lieutenant or three deputies; and the clerks of the ſubdiviſion meetings upon producing a like order from one deputy lieutenant, which orders ſhall diſcharge receivers general.

Regimental and battalion clerks ſhall give ſecurity for paying and accompting for the monies received by them; the bonds ſhall be lodged with the receivers general, and put in ſuit by them on non-performance of the condition; and they ſhall be intitled thereupon to full coſts and charges, and 5l. per cent. of the money recovered;

recovered; the reſidue to be accompted for to the auditor.

The regimental and battalion clerks, and captains of independent companies, ſhall deliver in accompts of their receipts and diſburſements, and pay over the ballance to the receivers general; who ſhall tranſmit the accompts into the auditor's office. Penalties, &c. ſhall be recoverable in any court of record.

No fee ſhall be payable for any warrant or ſum of money iſſued in purſuance of this act.

Heads of the act for preventing frauds and abuſes in relation to the ſending and receiving of letters and packets free from the duty of poſtage, which received the royal aſſent on the 18th of April, 1764.

The Preamble.

'WHEREAS, under colour of the privilege of ſending and receiving poſt letters by members of parliament, free from the duty of poſtage, many great and notorious frauds have been and ſtill are frequently practiſed, as well in derogation of the honour of parliament, as to the detriment of the public revenue; divers perſons having preſumed to counterfeit the hand, and otherwiſe fraudulently to make uſe of the names of members of parliament, upon letters and packets to be ſent by the poſt, in order to avoid the payment of the duty of poſtage*. And whereas the allowance of ſending and receiving letters and packets free from the duty of poſtage, heretofore granted to, or cuſtomarily exerciſed by, certain perſons not being members of parliament, in reſpect of their offices, has not been ſufficiently confined to ſuch letters and packets only as relate to the buſineſs of their reſpective offices, and may therefore, if continued without further reſtrictions and limitations, be liable to great abuſe. In order, therefore, to put the more effectual ſtop to theſe and the like frauds and abuſes, and at the ſame time to aſcertain, for the better guidance and direction of his majeſty's poſt maſter general, and the officers to be employed under him, in the performance of their duty, by what perſons only, and under what regulations or reſtrictions, the privilege or allowance of ſending and receiving letters and packets free from the duty of poſtage ſhall thenceforth be enjoyed and exerciſed: May it pleaſe your majeſty that it may be enacted, and be it enacted, &c.

That from and after 1ſt May 1764, while the revenue of the poſt office ſhall continue to be carried to the aggregate fund, no letters or packets ſhall be exempted from poſtage, but ſuch as ſhall be ſent from or to the king; and ſuch, not exceeding two ounces in weight, as ſhall be ſent during the ſeſſion of parliament, or within forty days before or after ſum-

* It appeared on examining witneſſes previous to the paſſing of this bill, that a waiter at one of the coffee houſes of this city made a practice of ſelling counterfeit franks at the rate of about a crown a dozen.

mons or prorogation, and be ſigned on the outſide by a member of either houſe, and the whole of the ſuperſcription to be of ſuch member's writing; or, directed to a member, at his uſual reſidence, or place where he ſhall then be, or at the houſe, &c. of parliament.

And in like manner, letters and packets ſent from and to places in Ireland, during the ſeſſion there, or within forty days before or after ſummons or prorogation, ſigned and directed by a member of that kingdom as aforeſaid.

Alſo all letters and packets to the lord high treaſurer, or commiſſioners, and ſecretaries to the treaſury; lord high admiral, commiſſioners and ſecretaries to the admiralty; principal ſecretaries of ſtate, and their under ſecretaries; commiſſioners for trade and plantations, or their ſecretary; ſecretary at war, or his deputy; lieutenant general, or other chief gevernor or governors of Ireland; or their chief ſecretary, or ſecretary for the provinces of Ulſter and Munſter; their ſecretary reſiding in Great Britain; the under ſecretary, and firſt clerk, in the office in Ireland of the chief ſecretary; and the firſt clerk in the office of the ſecretary for Ulſter and Munſter; the poſtmaſter general, or deputy, for Scotland, Ireland, and America; the ſecretary, or deputy of the poſtmaſter general; farmer of the bye and croſs-road letters; ſurveyors of the poſt-office; and letters and packets ſent from any of the ſaid offices, ſigned by them on the outſide, and the whole ſuperſcription of their writing; and letters and packets from the treaſury, admiralty office, office of the ſecretaries of ſtate, plantation office, war office, general poſt office at London, chief offices at Edinburgh, Dublin, and America, indorſed for the king's ſervice, and ſealed with the ſeal of office, or of the principal officer in the department.

Commiſſioners of the treaſury and admiralty, the ſecretaries of ſtate, commiſſioners for trade and plantations, ſecretary at war, poſtmaſter general, and his deputies, are impowered to authoriſe certain perſons in their reſpective offices, of whom liſts to be tranſmitted to the general poſt office, London, to indorſe the letters and packets upon the king's ſervice, and ſeal the ſame with the ſeal of office, &c. None to be ſo indorſed and ſealed, but by direction of their ſuperior officer, or which concerns the buſineſs of the office, on forfeiture of 5l. for the firſt offence, to be recovered and applied as by act 9 *Annæ* is directed; and for the ſecond offence, the offender to be diſmiſſed.

Perſons appointed to make ſuch indorſements, not to exceed two in any office, admiralty and war offices excepted; and in the admiralty not to exceed eight in time of peace, and twelve in time of war; and in the war office, not to exceed ſix in time of peace, and ten in time of war.

Where any privileged perſon, diſabled from writing the whole ſuperſcription, ſhall authoriſe ſome perſon to ſign his name upon, and write the ſuperſcription, and give notice thereof, under his hand and ſeal, to the poſtmaſter general, letters and packets ſo ſigned

ſigned and ſubſcribed ſhall go free.

Printed votes, and proceedings in parliament, and news-papers, ſent without covers, or in covers open at the ſides, and ſigned on the outſide by a member, or directed to a member, according to notice given by him to the poſtmaſter general, or his deputy at Edinburgh or Dublin, are to go free.

Clerks in the offices of the ſecretaries of ſtate, and poſt office, being duly licenſed, may continue to frank the votes, and proceedings in parliament, and news-papers, as heretofore; ſending the ſame without covers, or in covers open at the ſides.

The poſtmaſter general, and officers under him, may ſearch any packet ſent without a cover, or in a cover open at the ſides; and if they ſhall find any other paper or thing incloſed therein, or there ſhall be any writing other than the ſuperſcription upon the printed paper, or cover, the whole of ſuch packet is to be charged with the poſtage.

If any perſon ſhall, after 1 June 1764, counterfeit the writing of any perſon in the ſuperſcription of any letter or packet, to avoid the poſtage, he ſhall be adjudged of felony, and be tranſported for ſeven years.

Remarks on the above act.

Theſe are the heads of the act; to which the poſtmaſter general, in an advertiſement, reciting its contents, has added the following notice: viz. "That all carriers, coachmen, watermen, wherrymen, diſperſers of news-papers, higlers, and all other perſons whatſoever, hereafter detected in the illegal collecting, conveying, or delivering of letters and packets, will be proſecuted with the utmoſt ſeverity. The penalty is five pounds for every letter ſo collected or delivered, contrary to law, and one hundred pounds for every week ſuch practice is continued: one moiety to his majeſty, and the other to the informer."

Upon examination before the committee, it appeared that the poſtage of freed letters amounted, one year with another, to 170,000l.

Thoſe, on whom this abridgement of the privilege of franking will fall the heavieſt, ſeem to be the clerks in the ſecretaries of ſtate's office; ſome of the clerks of the poſt-office acknowledged before the houſe, that the profits accruing to them from franking news-papers, &c. amounted from 800l. to 1200l. a year, each; and to one in particular 1700l. a year; while the gentlemen belonging to the ſecretaries of ſtate's offices, to whom the great ſecrets * of government are neceſſarily entruſted, have no more than 100l. a year ſalary, and this privilege in no proportion to the poſt office clerks. It is ſomewhat extraordinary, therefore, as a writer in their behalf ob-

* It perhaps may not be generally known, that all the important diſpatches between our miniſters abroad, and thoſe at home, are written in cypher; it neceſſarily happens, therefore, that all the confidential letters are entruſted to the decyphering clerks, before either his majeſty or his miniſters can know a ſyllable of their contents.

ſerves, that, how many penſions and ſalaries are daily granted and augmented, whenever the juſtice or the generoſity of the legiſlature is applied to, no other notice ſhould be taken of theſe gentlemen, but to involve them in a prohibition, which will almoſt annihilate their former means of ſubſiſtence. For what now remains of the perquiſite of franking news-papers, will become almoſt the entire property of perſons, who have no other title to it than that of preſcription.

Heads of the act for the better regulating of buildings, and preventing miſchiefs that may happen by fire, within the weekly bills of mortality, and other places therein mentioned, which received the royal aſſent on the 5th of April, 1764.

THE preamble, after reciting part of the act of 11 Geo. I. for the better regulation of buildings, &c. ſo far as relates to pulling down or rebuilding party-walls between houſe and houſe, confined to caſes, in which one of the houſes is to be erected; or party-walls may be ſo far out of repair as to render it neceſſary to pull down and rebuild the ſame, although neither of the adjoining houſes require to be rebuilt; or party-walls may be ſo far defective and bad, by falling out of the perpendicular, as to become unſafe for the builder of the next houſe to reſt timbers thereon, or oblige ſuch builder to run his timbers quite through, whereby fire may be more readily communicated from houſe to houſe, contrary to the intention of the ſaid act; ſubſumes, that the workmen appointed by the ſaid act to examine party-walls are often equally divided in opinion about the neceſſity of pulling down and rebuilding them, whereby a certificate from the major part cannot be obtained, and the purpoſes of the ſaid act are in many inſtances evaded: Wherefore it is enacted, that, from and after paſſing this preſent act, ſo much of the ſaid act as relates to party-walls, within the city and liberty of Weſtminſter, or any pariſh, precinct, or place compriſed within the weekly bills of mortality, or within the pariſhes of Saint Mary le Bone, Paddington, Chelſea, and Saint Pancras, in the county of Middleſex, (except the city of London and liberty thereof: and alſo except the party-walls of houſes on the river Thames below bridge) ſhall extend, and be conſtructed to extend, in all caſes whatſoever, within the ſaid liberties, &c. aforeſaid, where it is or ſhall be neceſſary to pull down and rebuild any party-wall, whether any of the adjoining houſes ſhall, or ſhall not, be, or require to be, rebuilt or new built.

That in caſe the major part of the workmen, appointed to view the party-wall of any ſuch houſe, or houſes, intended to be pulled down, ſhall not, within one calendar month after ſuch appointment, ſign a certificate; it ſhall be lawful for any two or more of his majeſty's juſtices of the peace, reſiding in or near the place, upon application of the owner, or occupiers, of either houſes,

houſes, to name and appoint one other able workman, to be added to the workmen appointed by virtue of the ſaid recited act, who, on ten days notice given, ſhall meet, and view the party-wall propoſed to be taken down; and they, or the major part of them, certifying that the ſame is defective and ought to be pulled down, it ſhall be lawful to and for the owner, or occupier, to cauſe the ſame to be pulled down and rebuilt, and a moiety of the expences thereof recoverable.

That, to prevent the fatal conſequences of fire, all party-walls built within Weſtminſter, &c. after the expiration of three calendar months from the paſſing hereof, ſhall be two and a half bricks thick in the cellar, two bricks thick upwards to the garret floor, and one brick and a half thick at leaſt eighteen inches above the roofs or gutters; to be built of ſtone, or good ſound burnt brick, and none other.

That, after the expiration of the ſaid time, no timbers, (except thoſe of the girders, binding joiſts, and templets under the ſame) nor timbers of the roof, (except purloins or kerbs) be laid into party-walls; and that the ends of girders and binding joiſts, lying within ſuch walls, ſhall not exceed nine inches, the ends of which in adjoining houſes ſhall be at leaſt fourteen inches diſtant. That nine inches at leaſt of ſolid brick-work ſhall be between the ends of all lintels, wall plates, and bond timbers, which ſhall be laid in or upon the walls of the fore and back fronts of all houſes which ſhall adjoin to each other.

That if any builder, maſter bricklayer, or workman, ſhall erect, or cauſe to be erected or built, any party-wall, contrary to the directions of the act, or uſe, in building, any other than good ſound-burnt bricks, or ſhall lay any timber in any party-wall contrary to the true intent and meaning thereof; he ſhall, for every offence, forfeit and pay 50 l.

That from and after the firſt day of July 1764, no timbers whatſoever be laid or placed under the hearth of any room, or within nine inches of the funnel or flew of the chimneys, of any houſe within the limits aforeſaid.

That no timber buildings whatſoever be built adjoining to any houſe ſo as the timbers thereof be laid in the wall of any ſuch houſe, built or to be built, under the like penalty of 50 l.

And that no perſon, on any pretence whatſoever, ſhall cut into or wound any party-wall, erected or built purſuant to the directions of the act, nor lay into the ſame any other timbers than are thereby allowed, under the like penalty of 50 l.

That from and after the firſt day of July 1764, every maſter builder, who ſhall erect or build any houſe within the limits aforeſaid, ſhall, within fourteen days after it is covered in, cauſe the ſame to be ſurveyed by one or more ſurveyors; who are to make oath, before a juſtice of the peace, that the ſame has been built and erected agreeable to the directions of the act. The maſter builder, for every ſuch neglect or default, forfeits 50 l.

That in all caſes where diſputes may ariſe between the owners of adjoining houſes, concerning any

parts intermixed over or under each other, in such manner that a barty-wall cannot be effectually built upon the old foundation, without pulling down some parts of the one or the other; the justices of the peace, in the general or quarter sessions, on application made to them, are authorised to examine into the dispute, issue out their order to the sheriff, or other proper officer, to summon a jury to view the premisses, try the facts, and fix the value of any damages that may arise by verdict; the justices order on such verdict declared to be final.

The directors of insurance offices within London and Westminster are authorised, upon application of any person interested in or intitled unto any houses or buildings burnt down or damaged by fire, or where there is a suspicion that owners, occupiers, &c. who have insured such houses, have been guilty of fraud, or wilfully setting them on fire, with a view of gaining to themselves the insurance money, to cause the said money to be laid out and expended, towards the rebuilding and repairing such houses; unless the party claiming the insurance money shall, within sixty days after such claim, give security to the directors, that the same be laid out and expended as aforesaid.

Expence of party-walls pulled down and rebuilt, in pursuance of the act of 11 Geo. I. or those built in pursuance of this act, after the 1st of July, 1764, to be estimated between parties at the rate of 6 l. 10 s. per rod.

That after three calendar months from passing the act, the back, and fore-fronts, and party-walls of all future buildings, be erected of stone, or of good sound hard well-burnt bricks, and none other, from the breast-summer upwards; and that the breast-summer in all houses shall not be higher than the floor of the one-pair of stairs.

In cases of fire, the keepers of other large engines are equally intitled with parish engines to the reward granted by act 6 Ann.

Actions are restricted to six months after the fact is done.

The penalties are to be levied, upon conviction, by warrant of two or more justices of the peace, by distress of goods; one moiety to the informer, the other to the poor of the parish: and for want of such distress, the offender to be imprisoned for six months: or the penalty may be sued for and recovered in any of the courts of Westminster.

Parishioners and inhabitants of the parish where any offence against the act shall be committed, (except persons receiving alms) shall be admitted and allowed competent witnesses.

The act deemed and declared to be a public act.

An account of the parliamentary inquiry, made in March 1764, into the causes of the then high price of provisions.

SEveral of the most considerable butchers, and some victuallers of ships in London, being called upon by the parliament, agreed in stating the present price of the best beef, to be three-pence per pound to the vender, which is about one half-penny dearer than beef

beef of the ſame goodneſs has uſually been in the month of March for ſome years paſt, to which point all the witneſſes were brought in giving their evidence, as it was thought neceſſary, in determining a comparative price, to adhere to the ſame month, to the ſame meat, and of the ſame goodneſs.

The witneſſes ſtated the preſent price of the choice pieces of the beſt beef to be, to the conſumer, four-pence and four-pence farthing per pound; the beſt pieces of inferior beef three-pence, or three-pence farthing; and the coarſe pieces of beef, in general, from ſeven-farthings to two-pence half-penny and two-pence three-farthings, which is one half-penny dearer than the ſame have uſually been in the month of March.

An eminent victualler of the Eaſt-India company's ſhips agreed, with the butchers, in their repreſentation of the preſent price of proviſions, and added, that he did not recollect that the ſame ſorts had ever been ſold for a higher price during the laſt war: and a Virginia merchant confirmed this evidence by the comparative prices of his own charge, in victualling his ſhips for Virginia, which he ſaid he victualled in March, 1763, at the rate of twenty-four or twenty-five ſhillings per hundred weight for beef: Whereas he, this year, gave twenty-ſeven ſhillings for the ſame weight and ſort. The butchers alſo admitted the preſent price of mutton to be higher than it uſed to be in March, but they ſtated the increaſe differently from a farthing to a half-penny per pound.

To diſcover the cauſes of this increaſe of price, ſome ſaleſmen were examined, who alledged, firſt, the greater demand from an increaſe in the preſent conſumption of London; but, upon ſtricter examination, they produced no concluſive, or, indeed, probable evidence, to prove any ſuch increaſe of habitation, or of conſumption, as they ſuppoſed. They then accounted for this increaſe of the price of meat by the want of pork at market, proceeding from the great plenty of acorns in 1762, which induced all the feeders to fatten their whole ſtock of hogs in that year; and this extraordinary ſlaughter they ſaid is not yet replaced; and that the want of one article, in the general proviſions of ſo populous a city as London, has neceſſarily advanced the price of other ſpecies: the whole demand acting upon the whole quantity of the different ſorts of proviſion as upon one and the ſame ſubject. They added alſo, that the wet ſeaſon had much leſſened the weight of even fat cattle; that the great ſcarcity of fodder, in 1762, had reduced the breed and ſtock; and that the failure in the crop of turnips in ſeveral counties, this year, had prevented thoſe counties fattening the uſual quantities of beaſts. They aſſigned alſo the low price of hides and tallow, as an additional reaſon. But, upon further examination, all the ſaleſmen and butchers admitted that the preſent high price is not intirely or excluſively the effect of natural cauſes, but an artificial price, reſulting from combinations, and

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the want of better regulations for the ſale of cattle in open markets.

In ſupport of this opinion, they informed the parliament of a method now practiſed of buying large quantities of ſheep and oxen upon the road to market, in order to foreſtall the market of that day, and fix the price by the will of a few engroſſers; and of another ſpecies of foreſtalling, in which perſons buy great numbers of ſheep and oxen, and, after ſlaughter, ſell the carcaſes whole to the leſſer butchers, and thereby ſet the market price to them, and advance the retail price. And all the witneſſes concurred, in declaring, that, if theſe combinations and arts for gaining and keeping the command of the markets in a few hands could be obviated and prevented, the ſummer and winter price of meat, of all ſorts, would be more reaſonable.

They were clearly of opinion, that, at this very time, there is no want of fat cattle; and they urged with great force, in ſupport of that judgement, that through the whole month of March, when proviſions have been ſo very dear in London, beef, mutton, and veal, have been at a moderate and uſual price in the markets of the ſeveral counties within thirty miles round the metropolis.

Arguments brought by the Spaniards for refuſing payment of the ranſom bills, for preſerving Manila from pillage and deſtruction, with an abſtract of colonel Draper's refutation thereof, in a letter addreſſed to the earl of Halifax.

Arguments, &c.

THE Engliſh generals who made themſelves maſters of Manila, propoſed, on the fifth of October, 1762, a capitulation to the archbiſhop, who acted as governor; by which they promiſed to preſerve the city from pillage, if the governor and principal magiſtrates would conſent to, and ſign the articles of, the ſaid capitulation; which they were forced to do, being threatened to be put to the ſword, in caſe of refuſal.

Notwithſtanding this ſhameful capitulation, extorted and ſigned by the means of violence and rigour, general Draper ordered or ſuffered the city to be ſacked and pillaged, for forty hours, by four thouſand Engliſh, who plundered it of morethan a million of dollars.

Therefore the ſaid capitulation ought to be void, becauſe it was ſigned by force; and becauſe general Draper firſt violated and broke the capitulation by permitting the city to be pillaged: conſequently, that capitulation only, which was propoſed by the governor, accepted of and ſigned by admiral Corniſh, and general Draper, upon the ſeventh of October, ought to be conſidered and reſpected in this affair.

The firſt article of which grants to the inhabitants of Manila the peaceable quiet poſſeſſion of all their effects; the fourth and fixth

ſixth liberty of commerce, under the protection of his Britannic majeſty.

Refutation, &c.

It is a known and univerſal rule of war amongſt the moſt civilized nations, that places taken by ſtorm, without any capitulation, are ſubject to all the miſeries that the conquerors may chuſe to inflict.

Manila, my lord, was in this horrid ſituation; of conſequence the lives of the inhabitants, with all belonging to them, were entirely at our mercy. But chriſtianity, humanity, the dignity of our nation, and our own feelings as men, induced us not to exert the utmoſt rigour of the poſſeſſion, againſt thoſe wretched ſuppliants; although my own ſecretary, lieutenant Fryar, had been murdered, as he was carrying a flag of truce to the town. The admiral and I told the archbiſhop and principal magiſtrates, that we were deſirous to ſave ſo fine a city from deſtruction, ordered them to withdraw, conſult, and propoſe ſuch terms of compenſation as might ſatisfy the fleet and army, and exempt them from pillage, and its fatal conſequences.

The propoſals they gave in, were the very ſame, which the Spaniards moſt artfully call a ſecond capitulation; and were afterwards agreed to, and confirmed by us (with a few reſtrictions;) but at that time were ſo unſuitable to their deſperate ſituation, that we rejected them as unſatisfactory and inadmiſſible. As conquerors, we took the pen, and dictated thoſe terms of the ranſom which the Spaniards thought proper to ſubmit to: for they had the alternative, either to be paſſive under the horrors of a pillage, or compound for their preſervation; they accepted the latter.

The objection and pretence of force and violence may be made uſe of to evade any military agreements whatſoever, where the two parties do not treat upon an equality; for who, in war, will ſubmit to an inconvenient and prejudicial compact, unleſs from force? But have the Spaniards forgot their own hiſtories? Or will they not remember the juſt indignation expreſſed againſt Francis the firſt, who pleaded the like ſubterfuge of force and violence, to evade the treaty made after the battle of Pavia, and his captivity?

Should ſuch eluſive doctrines prevail, it will be impoſſible, hereafter, for the vanquiſhed to obtain any quarter or terms whatſoever: the war will be carried on *uſque ad internecionem*; and if a ſovereign ſhall refuſe to confirm the conditions ſtipulated by his ſubjects, who are in ſuch critical ſituations, the conſequences are too horrid to mention.

By the ſame fallacious ſophiſtry, a ſtate may object to the payment of the ranſoms of ſhips taken at ſea, and to contributions levied in a country which is the ſeat of war. But it is always allowed that in ſuch caſes, a part muſt be ſacrificed to ſave the whole; and ſurely, when by the laws of war we were intitled to the whole, it was a great degree of moderation to be contented with a part.

The deſtruction that we could have

have occaſioned, would have trebled the loſs they ſuffer by the payment of the ranſom. The rich churches and convents, the king of Spain's own palace, with its ſuperb and coſtly furniture, the magnificent buildings of every ſort, the fortifications, docks, magazines, founderies, cannon, and, in ſhort, the whole might have been entirely ruined, the Spaniſh empire in Aſia ſubverted, and the fruits of their religious miſſion loſt for ever, together with the lives of many thouſands of the inhabitants, who were ſpared by our humanity. As a ſuitable and grateful return for this lenity, the Spaniſh memorial affirms, that after the capitulation was ſigned, general Draper ordered, or permitted, the city to be ſacked or pillaged for forty hours together, by four thouſand Engliſh, who plundered it of more than a million of dollars.

As my own character, both as an officer and a man of honour, is ſo wickedly attacked by this unjuſt accuſation, I muſt beg leave to ſtate the whole affair in its true light; and do appeal for its veracity to the teſtimonies of every officer and ſoldier, who ſerved in the expedition, and to all the marine department.

We entered Manila by ſtorm, on the 6th of October, 1762, with an handful of troops, whoſe total amounted to little more than two thouſand; a motley compoſition of ſeamen, ſoldiers, ſeapoys, cafres, laſcars, topaſees, French and German deſerters.

Many of the houſes had been abandoned by the frighted inhabitants, and were burſt open by the violence of ſhot, or exploſion of ſhells. Some of theſe were entered and pillaged. But all military men know how difficult it is to reſtrain the impetuoſity of troops in the firſt fury of an aſſault, eſpecially when compoſed of ſuch a variety and confuſion of people, who differed as much in ſentiments and language, as in dreſs and complexion.

Several hours elapſed, before the principal magiſtrates could be brought to a conference; during that interval the inhabitants were undoubtedly great ſufferers. But, my lord, this violence was antecedent to our ſettling the terms of the capitulations, and by the laws of war, the place, with all its contents, became the unqueſtionable property of the captors, until a ſufficient equivalent was given in lieu of it. That ſeveral robberies were committed, after the capitulation was ſigned, is not to be denied; for avarice, want, and rapacity, are ever inſatiable: but that the place was pillaged for forty hours, and that pillage authoriſed and permitted by me, is a moſt falſe and infamous aſſertion. The people of Manila, my lord, have impoſed upon their court by a repreſentation of facts which never exiſted; and to make ſuch a groundleſs charge the reaſon for ſetting aſide and evading a ſolemn capitulation, is a proceeding unheard of till now, and as void of decency as common ſenſe.

The following extracts from the public orders given out the very day we entered the town, will ſufficiently convince your lordſhip, of my conſtant attention to the preſervation of thoſe ungrateful

people;

people; who have almoſt taught me to believe, that humanity and compaſſion are crimes.

Extracts.

October 6th, Manila.

"The utmoſt order and regularity to be obſerved.

All perſons guilty of robberies, or plundering the churches and houſes, will be hanged without mercy.

The guards to ſend frequent patroles both day and night, to prevent diſorders.

The drummers to beat to arms, the officers to aſſemble with their men, and call the rolls.

The adjutants to go round the town, and take an exact account of the ſafe guards, poſted for the protection of the convents, churches, and houſes."

October 7th.

"All the inhabitants of Manila are to be looked upon and treated as his Britannic majeſty's ſubjects: They having agreed to pay four millions of dollars, for the ranſom and preſervation of their city and effects.

The criminals executed for robbery and ſacrilege, to be buried at ſunſet."

Memorial of Charles Howard, Eſq; of Greyſtock, and Miſs Frances Howard, of the family of Norfolk, in England; preſented to the Britiſh ambaſſador at Paris, concerning a claim of theirs to the effects of a relation who died in France. Tranſlated from the French.

MR. and Miſs Howard, and with them all the Engliſh nation, do, by the good offices of the ambaſſador, claim the execution of the XIIIth article of the treaty of Utrecht, and of the declaration of 1739, by both which the ſubjects of Great Britain are allowed to ſucceed to the perſonal eſtates of their relations deceaſed in France; in the ſame manner as the ſubjects of the moſt chriſtian king are authoriſed to inherit the like eſtates of their relations dying in England.

Theſe laws have been executed in this particular, with the utmoſt exactneſs on the part of the Engliſh.

They can bring the moſt authentic proofs, and are able to maintain by a number of examples, which have happened even during the late war, that this execution has been totally in favour of the French; inſomuch, that even when there was no preciſe law upon this point, the uſage alone, which was practiſed in England, was ſufficient to give this nation a right to exact from France a reciprocality which is founded on the right of nature and nations. It is by the favour of theſe different titles, that Mr. and Miſs Howard preſume to demand their part of a ſucceſſion to the perſonal eſtate of their uncle, who died in France: and yet the judges of the Chatelet, before whom their claim was at firſt carried, have not judged proper to admit it; and their ſentence has been confirmed by an arret.

It was difficult to conceive what could be the motives for ſuch ſingular deciſions; eſpecially if it be conſidered, that the ſucceſſion in queſtion was open before the late war.

Mr. and Miſs Howard were in

England at the time they received the news, by a letter from their attorney. If they can believe this letter, the judges were determined againſt them for two powerful reaſons, which were propoſed by the king's advocate to the Chatelet: the one, that the treaty of Utrecht, on which they founded their claim, had not been regiſtered in parliament: the other, that the argument does not hold good, of the French being admitted to ſucceed to the perſonal eſtates of their relations who die in England; becauſe that admiſſion is not founded, ſay they, on the treaty of Utrecht, but on the conſtitution of that kingdom, which admits to that kind of ſucceſſion other foreigners, equally with French; whereas, according to the conſtitution of France, they cannot be allowed there but by virtue of a naturalization, or of a particular treaty, duly regiſtered.

Although this was ſufficiently refuted by the words of the treaty of Utrecht, and the declaration of 1739, which makes no diſtinction in the reputed quality of relations, according to which they ought to ſucceed; nevertheleſs, to ſet it more effectually aſide, the late Mr. Simon de Moſart, who was charged with the defence of Mr. and Miſs Howard, thought proper to have it conſulted in England, in order to know what was the cuſtom there in this caſe. The caſe was at firſt ſtated in this manner:

If an Engliſhman born, happens to die in England, without children, and inteſtate, and having relations born, and always reſiding in France, it is asked, Will they be intitled to partake the ſucceſſion to the perſonal eſtate of the defunct, equally with his relations in the ſame degree of kindred, born and educated in England?

The anſwer given to this queſtion was conceived in the following manner:

The council having conſidered, is of opinion, that in conſequence of the ſtatutes of diſtribution, the relations born in France have the ſame right to perſonal eſtates as thoſe born in England.

This anſwer not having entirely ſatisfied the French advocate, in that it only ſpoke of the ſtatute of diſtribution, and not of the treaty of Utrecht, the execution of which was the principal debate in this cauſe; he reſumed the enquiry, and deſired that the Engliſh council would give his opinion upon the following queſtion: it is asked,

How do they in England underſtand and execute the XIIIth article of the treaty of Utrecht? and if, in conſequence of this treaty, a Frenchman living in France, could ſucceed to an Engliſhman, his relation, dying in England, being equally related with the Engliſh heirs of the deceaſed reſiding in England? and what are the reaſons upon which the Engliſh ground their admiſſion of the Frenchman to ſucceed with the others?

The following is the next anſwer, which was ſent from England.

The uſage of England is exactly agreeable to the XIIIth article of the treaty of Utrecht; the French relations being admitted to ſucceed, equally with Engliſh relations in the ſame degree of kindred, to the perſonal eſtate of an inteſtate dying in England. The

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law of England does not, in this reſpect, make any diſtinction between foreigners and natural-born ſubjects, and is conformed to the conſtitution of the emperor Frederic II. tit. 1. ſect. 10. and is founded as well on natural juſtice, as commercial reaſons.

It is to be obſerved, that this clear and expreſs opinion is ſigned by the lord chief juſtice of England, by the king's advocate and attorney-general, and conſequently that it has all the marks of authority that any one can deſire in matters of this kind,

In ſhort, independently of the proofs which reſulted from theſe pieces, Mr. and Miſs Howard offered farther to juſtify, by the regiſters of the courts of juſtice in England, a crowd of examples of ſucceſſions of perſonal eſtates, which have been recovered by French people of their Engliſh relations. They cited, among others, that of Mrs. Cantillon, a French woman, actually reſiding at the Nouvelles Catholiques, in Paris, who having claimed, during the laſt war, the perſonal eſtate of Mr. John Cantillon, her nephew, who died in Ireland, in 1754, being a captain in one of his Britannic majeſty's regiments, was put into poſſeſſion of the effects of this ſucceſſion, by the court of Doctors Commons, to the prejudice of his other relations; and ſhe has received, in conſequence, 650l. ſterling, and the remainder to be remitted to her immediately.

So many proofs accumulated, left no reſource for the pretended argument of incapacity, which they had at firſt oppoſed to Mr. and Miſs Howard: they waited patiently the ſucceſs of their demand, till they underſtood, with an extreme ſurpriſe, that it had been rejected by a ſentence of the Chatelet. And the affair being afterwards carried before parliament, an arret was paſſed, which confirmed that ſentence.

An account of the entertainments given his royal highneſs the Duke of York, at Venice.

THE morning after his royal highneſs arrived, (25th May 1764) he received the compliments of the doge by four Venetian noblemen, who were ordered to attend him during his ſtay. The two following evenings his highneſs went to the opera. On the third day he viſited the arſenal, where the Venetian nobility of both ſexes were preſent to pay their reſpects to him. He was conducted to the different parts of this extenſive building in a magnificent felucca built on purpoſe, and attended by three other feluccas, all rowed by men in the dreſs of Engliſh ſailors, and the three laſt filled with Engliſh and other foreigners of diſtinction, and with noble Venetians. Three thouſand hands were employed in building and fitting out ſhips and galleys; one of which was put upon the ſtocks in the preſence of his royal highneſs, which he was ſurpriſed to ſee nearly compleated before he left the arſenal. Having viſited the ſeveral docks, the rope-walks, the forges, &c. he was at length conducted to the grand armory, where a concert of muſic was prepared, and from the balcony of which he ſaw the ſhews called *Le forze*

forze d'Ercole, and the *Moreſſa* dance, with which his highneſs expreſſed the greateſt pleaſure. On his return he was conducted back by the noblemen appointed to attend him.—But all this was little in compariſon to what was preparing for the further entertainment of his royal highneſs. The four noble attendants, animated with an earneſt deſire to anſwer the intentions of their republic, deviſed public races upon the great canal, and fixed the exhibition of them to the 4th of June, his Britannic majeſty's birth-day. — The numerous and ſplendid barges, that appeared on this occaſion, ſet out from the lower end of the great canal about three in the afternoon, and advancing towards the Rialto bridge, followed the courſe of the great canal to the mount of St. Anthony, where the ſignal being given, his highneſs ſaw many competitors in a boat with one oar ſtart, and in a biſſona ſaw the whole of the race, which paſſing along the great canal and returning back to the middle of it, formed a courſe of about four miles, and ended at a conſpicuous ſtructure, erected upon barges, repreſenting the palace of Joy; in the front of the firſt ſtory of which appeared Venice embracing Britain. The firſt race being over, his royal highneſs was pleaſed to go to a palace upon the great canal, fitted up and adorned on purpoſe, where, from a balcony, ſurrounded with ladies and gentlemen, he ſaw the four ſubſequent races. In the mean time, in ſight of above two hundred thouſand ſpectators, nine magnificent peotas moved ſlowly about the canal, amidſt ſeveral thouſand gondolas and other light barges; while the ſwift and equally rich biſſonas and margorotas, with young nobles, attended, armed with bows and pellets, and cleared the way for the racers.—The four firſt peotas repreſented the four elements; the firſt of them, entirely ſilvered over, and ſymbolizing the element of Water, repreſented the triumph of Neptune, adorned with figures of tritons, ſword-fiſh, dolphins, &c. The ſecond expreſſed the Earth, ſymbolized in the goddeſs Cybele, crowned with towers, and adorned with various products, plants, flowers and animals, the whole being gilt and ſilvered over. The third was ſky-colour and ſilver, denoting the element of Air, expreſſed by the rape of Orithya by Boreas, with Zephyrs and Cupids playing around in the air. The fourth was of flame-colour, with ornaments of ſilver, indicating the element of Fire, admirably expreſſed by the forge of Vulcan, Vulcan ſweating at the anvil, with his naked cyclops in gigantic figures, with Venus oppoſite in her car, drawn by doves, and with other alluſions agreeable to the fable. Theſe four peotas bore the arms quartered of the four attendants. The other five peotas were fitted out by their neareſt relations. The firſt repreſented Great Britain led in triumph by Europe; the ſecond ſhewed the whale-fiſhing, admirably repreſented; the third exhibited the triumph of Venus, in her car drawn by four doves; the fourth, the chariot of the ſun, drawn by four horſes, preceded by Aurora, in the act of diſperſing night; the fifth and laſt, the triumph of Pallas, with trophies and alluſions to that deity, &c. all rivalling each other in pomp, and glit-

glittering with silver and gold, particularly the various elegant dresses of the rowers, musicians, and other figures, in each peota, richly adorned with laces, besides the long fringes and tassels of silver playing upon the water. The singularity of the shew, possible to be executed only in Venice, animated the four noble deputies to manifest at once to the whole world, the sincere friendship of the republic towards the crown of Great Britain. [Bissonas are barges of eight oars, margarottas of six, and ballitonas of four.]

Some account of the German emigrants, so hospitably received and provided for by this nation in the course of the present year.

Aug. 30. THere appeared in one of the daily papers a letter from Mr. Wachsell, minister of the German Lutheran church of St. George's in Goodman's fields, giving an account, that about six hundred protestant Wurtzburghers and Palatines, of both sexes and all ages, brought over from their native country by a German officer, with a promise of being immediately sent to settle at his own expence in the island of St. John in America, being abandoned by him through an inability to make his promise good, were in the utmost danger of perishing for want of assistance, being too numerous to lie entirely on the hands of their countrymen here, who had already contributed handsomely to their relief; that about four hundred of them, having wherewith to pay their passage, were suffered to come ashore, whilst the rest were detained on board ship; that they were all in a manner without food, many without cloaths, and some sick, yet obliged to lie in the open fields exposed to all the inclemencies of a rainy season; that one poor woman had been actually delivered there, and perished with her child for want of proper care and assistance; that these wretched beings would think themselves extremely happy, if the British government would be graciously pleased to take them under its protection, to allow them, for the present, some ground to lie on, tents to cover them, and any manner of subsistence, till it shall be thought proper to ship them off, and settle them in any of its colonies in America; where, he doubted not, they would give their protectors and benefactors constant proofs of their affection and gratitude for such kindness; but that they had no friend, who had interest enough to intercede effectually for them, or even knew the proper method of application, which was his reason for thus addressing the public.

It is scarce possible to express, how soon, and how powerfully, this letter worked on the charity of all ranks. That very morning they were supplied with one hundred tents from the tower, with all necessaries thereto belonging, by orders of the king; and, before night, the passage of all the poor captives on board ship was paid, and they released from their wretched confinement in filth and nastiness, by the same bountiful hand. The tents from his majesty were soon followed by contributions from all quarters, some of one hundred pounds each, many of ten; and by express, and from unknown benefactors. Subscriptions were likewise opened at several coffee-hou-

ſes, and collections made at ſeveral churches after ſermons preached to inforce them; both with no ſmall ſucceſs. Their majeſties ſent a further contribution of 300 l. An eminent phyſician, a ſurgeon and man midwife, and an apothecary, offered their perſonal aſſiſtance; ſo that, in two or three days, to the great honour of the nation, they ſaw themſelves from the loweſt ſtate of wretchedneſs, many in a comfortable, all in a tolerable ſituation. Their moſt preſſing wants being thus anſwered, the gentlemen, who had formed themſelves into a committee for the application of theſe contributions, applied to his majeſty to know his royal will with regard to them, and received a moſt gracious anſwer by lord Halifax, purporting, that they ſhould be ſent to, and eſtabliſhed in, South Carolina, and one hundred and fifty ſtands of arms delivered for their defence.

Upon this, the committee publiſhed the following advertiſement in regard to their paſſage; which advertiſement we inſert at large, as a ſtriking ſpecimen of the great attention of thoſe gentlemen to the welfare of theſe poor people, and the great generoſity of the ſubſcribers, who enabled them to make ſo comfortable a proviſion.

"Wanted, two ſhips, of not leſs than 200 tons burthen, to carry the poor Palatines to South Carolina; not more than 200 perſons in each ſhip. To be ready to ſail in 10 days.

The neceſſaries that are expected to be provided, as follow:

One pound of bread, of 16 ounces, for each perſon, men, women, and children, every day.

One man, one woman, and three children to a meſs.

Sunday, for each meſs, a piece of beef, 4lb. flour, 3lb. fruit, or ſuet, half-pound; and a quart of peas.

Monday, ſtockfiſh, 3lb. butter, 1lb. cheeſe, 1lb. potatoes, 3lb.

Tueſday, two pieces of pork, 6lb. rice, 2lb.

Wedneſday, gritts, 5lb. butter, 2lb. cheeſe, 2lb.

Thurſday, the ſame as Sunday, only potatoes inſtead of peas.

Friday, grey peas, two quarts; butter, 2lb. cheeſe, 2lb.

Saturday, flour, 2 lb. fruit, half-pound; potatoes, 2lb. butter, 2lb. cheeſe, 2lb.

Sufficient vinegar, pepper, and ſalt, every day.

A ton of water for every three perſons.

Six quarts of good ſhip beer, each meſs, for the firſt three weeks; and for the remainder of the voyage, a pint of Britiſh ſpirits each day.

Medicines, and a doctor to each ſhip, provided by the committee.

Half the freight to be paid before ſailing from Graveſend; the other moiety at their delivery at South Carolina: deducting one-half of the ſecond payment for every perſon that dies on their paſſage.

All that exceed fourteen years on the 1ſt of September, to be deemed whole paſſengers.

All under that age, two to be deemed as one paſſenger.

Security will be required for the exact performance of the contract.

Propoſals may be left at the bar of Batſon's coffee-houſe, Cornhill, for the committee, on or before Tueſday the 18th inſtant, at 12 o'clock."

On the 5th of October, theſe poor people broke up their camp in the fields behind Whitechapel church, in order to embark.

Their

Their departure formed a moſt moving ſpectacle. Some gentlemen of the committee attended on the occaſion, and accompanied them to the water-ſide, and particularly the reverend Mr. Wachſell, whoſe pious labours are above all praiſe. On his taking leave of them, tears flowed plentifully on both ſides, eſpecially from the ſick, and pregnant women who were near their time. Many of the perſons preſent could not refrain from ſympathizing with them. They were carried in lighters to the ſhips lying at Blackwall, ſinging hymns all the way, and a great number of boats filled with ſpectators attended them, who ſeemed greatly affected with their devout behaviour, and demonſtrations of gratitude to the nation which had ſo hoſpitably treated them. Twenty-one, who were judged too ſick or weak to venture on ſo long a voyage, were left behind at Graveſend, but ſent away as ſoon as they recovered.

Many unthinking people murmured much at the great and ready relief ſhewn to theſe ſtrangers, when we had ſo many poor of our own to provide for. They did not conſider that all our own poor are intitled to a proviſion in their reſpective pariſhes, and to be ſent to their pariſhes, be it at ever ſo great a diſtance.

It is very remarkable, that, the very day after the reverend Mr. Waſchell's letter appeared in our papers, the following advertiſement appeared in the Hague gazette; by whoſe orders we are not told; probably by that of our ambaſſador there; for, as it is impoſſible our miniſtry in England ſhould know any thing of theſe poor wretches being here without knowing of their ſufferings, ſo it is full as improbable, that they ſhould know of their ſufferings, and not immediately relieve them. The advertiſement is as follows.

"One I. H. C. de Stumpel, who ſtiles himſelf a colonel in the ſervice of the king of Great Britain, having engaged a number of perſons to go into England, upon aſſurances which he gave them, that he was authoriſed by his Britannic majeſty to promiſe them ſettlements in America; and that they ſhould be carried there at the king's expence: in order to prevent his continuing to impoſe upon the credulity of the public in this reſpect, it is thought proper to advertiſe, that the ſaid Stumpel was never authoriſed, as he pretends, to engage people for thoſe ſettlements, nor to make any promiſes on the part of the Britiſh miniſtry."

Some account of the principal debates among the proprietors of Eaſt India ſtock, mentioned in our Chronicle, p. 49.

THE firſt ſubject of theſe debates was the behaviour of their ſervants in the Eaſt Indies, who had been very far from unanimous in tranſacting the company's affairs there for ſome time paſt, and whoſe enemies and friends were now very liberal in their accuſations and recriminations, not much to the honour of either party, or of thoſe who permitted them to ſacrifice the honour of the nation to their private views. The next ſubject was the direction of their affairs at home and abroad, moſt, if not all, of them, looking up to lord Clive as the only perſon

qualified as commander in chief, for the former in ſuch critical circumſtances, and many conſidering Mr. Sullivan as indiſpenſably neceſſary, as chairman, in the latter, whilſt his lordſhip refuſed to act under any direction in which that gentleman had the lead. At laſt the diſmal proſpect of the company's affairs in India decided the diſpute in favour of lord Clive, ſo that Mr. Sullivan had ſcarce votes enough to bring him into the direction.

But another difficulty ſtill remained. Mir Jaffier, on his advancement to the nabobſhip by our victorious arms under lord Clive, then colonel Clive, had made over to the company a tract of country, whoſe annual rents amounted to 600,000l. reſerving to himſelf the quit-rents, amounting to 30,000l. a year; and ſome time after he granted theſe quit-rents to the colonel, as an acknowledgement of his obligations to him. Theſe quit-rents, commonly known by the name of Clive's jagheer, the company, through whoſe hands alone his lordſhip could receive them, thought proper to ſtop, under various pretences, particularly their being liable to make them good to the mogul, in caſe the arms of this monarch ſhould ever gain the aſcendancy in Bengal. Theſe reaſons lord Clive anſwered in a very ſatisfactory manner, and particularly that we have ſpecified, which he refuted on principles aſſumed by the company in a diſpute between them and the Dutch Eaſt India company. Arguments alone, however, proving inſufficient to end the diſpute, and his lordſhip thinking it, as indeed he had a juſt right, very improper for him to engage in the company's ſervice while there ſubſiſted any difference between him and the company, he was requeſted to propoſe his terms, which he accordingly did. Theſe were, that he ſhould enjoy his jagheer for ten years, provided the company ſhould remain ſo long in poſſeſſion of thoſe lands, of which the jagheer is the quit-rent, and provided he ſhould live ſo long; at the end of ten years, or at his death, if it ſhould happen firſt, his right and title to the jagheer to ceaſe; and, on his arrival in India, he to uſe his utmoſt endeavours with the nabob to ſecure the reverſion of it to the company. Should his death happen early in this ſervice, he ſubmitted to the conſideration of the directors and proprietors, (but did not inſiſt upon it) whether it could not be continued to his heirs for five years. The company readily aſſented to every thing, except the continuance of the jagheer to his lordſhip's executors. But ſoon after, to prevent any ſuch diſputes for the future, it was reſolved that none of their ſervants ſhould accept of any ſuch gratuity from any Indian prince or governor. Here we cannot help wiſhing, that the company had ſhewed itſelf as attentive to the honour of the nation, as to their own intereſt, by making ſome laws to prevent at leaſt the ſhameful rapaciouſneſs of their ſervants in the Eaſt-Indies.

But to return, as ſoon as harmony was thus reſtored, lord Clive prepared for his voyage; and having obtained from his majeſty the honour of the Bath, and the title of major general in India, he ſet out from London for that country on the 27th of

of May, notwithſtanding the news of many and great advantages obtained there under major Adams, which were received in the interim. [For an account of theſe advantages, and other intereſting tranſactions in the Eaſt Indies, the reader is referred to the Hiſtory, with which this volume opens.]

Some account of a remarkable robbery committed at lord Harrington's houſe in the Stable-yard, St. James's, in December 1763.

IN the Year 1762, lord Harrington was ſo unfortunate as to receive into his ſervice in the capacity of a porter, one John Weſket, who had before been aſſociated with John Bradley, and James Cooper, in robbing the chambers of Henry Mountague, eſq; in Lincoln's Inn, and the houſe of Mr. William Burton in Hatton Garden.

Both Bradley and Cooper had been livery ſervants; Bradley, in December 1763, when Weſket had lived about a year and half at lord Harrington's, was out of place, and Cooper having before failed as a cheeſemonger in Ratcliff Highway, kept a chandler's ſhop and coal cellar in New Turnſtile, Holborn; Bradley at that time being his lodger.

Weſket, having formed a deſign to rob lord Harrington, took opportunities of going frequently, under various pretences, into the room in which his lordſhip uſually ſat, and in which there was a bureau where he kept his caſh and notes.

By going thither to his lordſhip with a letter, though it was not his buſineſs, he had ſeen the bureau open, while his lordſhip was counting money, and had remarked what part of the bureau it was kept in.

He had alſo been told by Mr. Bevel, his lordſhip's ſteward, that money had been received to pay bills; and when Bevel was aſked in court how he came to give him this intelligence, he anſwered, that it was to apprize him of tradeſmen receiving their money, that he might get from them, what noblemen's porters have, by the tyranny of cuſtom, long exacted from their tradeſmen, when paid, under the name of *perquiſite*; and that he likewiſe told Weſket, that he would take care the tradeſmen ſhould come to the houſe to be paid, to enſure the levying of this tax.

Weſket having got this intelligence, and having acquainted himſelf with the bureau, and the particular part of it where the money was kept, he communicated his purpoſe of robbing his lord to his old aſſociate Bradley, and appointed him to come to aſſiſt in the fact on Saturday evening, the 5th of December 1763, when he knew his lord and lady were to be at the opera, directing him at the ſame time to bring a brace of piſtols and a tinder-box.

With what view the piſtols were ordered does not appear, the robbery being to be perpetrated in ſecrecy and ſilence, where no body could be preſent but the thieves, unleſs it was to ſecure their retreat, if they ſhould be detected in the fact. The tinder-box was to be left behind, that the robber might be ſuppoſed not to be a domeſtic, nor ſufficiently acquainted with

the houſe to know where to light a candle.

Bradley accordingly came, about eight o'clock in the evening, with his piſtols and tinder-box. Weſket let him in at the door of the porter's lodge, and ordering him to walk ſoftly, took him into a little room where he ſlept.—"No "body, ſays he, has a right to "come hither; I will get you "ſomething to drink, and here "you ſhall remain till the mid-"dle of the night, and then "we will have my lord's mo-"ney."

Weſket immmediately left him, locking him in, but returned ſoon afterwards with a bottle of rum; and Bradley then ſhewed him his piſtols and tinder-box, which Weſket took from him, and then left him again. Weſket was afterwards to and again ſeveral times, but always locked the door, and took the key with him, when he went away.

About twelve o'clock, lord and lady Harrington came home; and between one and two Weſket came to him, and told him the family were ſecure:—"Take a draught "of rum, ſays he, have courage, "and follow me."

They then went into the kitchen, and Weſket ſhewed him a very high window, which opened with a pully and ſtring, telling him, that muſt be his way out when the buſineſs was done. To this Bradley objected for a very good reaſon, becauſe he did not know where he ſhould come when he got out of the window. He ſaid, however, that the purpoſe intended might be anſwered without trouble or riſque; and immediately pulling off his ſhoes, which were dirty, he made the mark of his foot upon the dreſſer, which it was neceſſary to mount to get at the window, and then he daubed the window and the wall, to make it appear that ſome body with dirty feet had got out of it.

When this was done they both went very ſoftly to the bureau in my lord's ſtudy, when Weſket, giving Bradley the candle, took a gimblet and chiſſel out of his pocket and broke open the bureau. He took out two bank notes, one for a hundred pounds, and the other for thirty, three gold ſnuff-boxes, four hundred pounds in money, and other things, to the value of two thouſand pounds; he gave this booty to Bradley, and, leaving the tinder-box behind, conducted him again down ſtairs, and then giving him the piſtols, he with great caution opened the ſtreet door and let him out, deſiring he might not ſee him for a fortnight or three weeks. The ſtreet door he left a-jar, fearing to ſhut it leſt he ſhould be heard, and went to bed.

Bradley made the beſt of his way with his booty to Cooper's houſe, having deſired him to ſit up for him; Cooper, however, when he came thither, was not at home, whereupon Bradley went about in ſearch of him, but without ſucceſs. Bradley then returned to his houſe and depoſited the treaſure, which he had carried about the ſtreet all night, in a kind of ſhed in the yard under no lock. It was then near four o'clock, and Cooper was not yet come home; he therefore went out again to ſeek him, and by accident met him near Temple-bar. It might reaſonably be thought, that they would

would then have gone immediately back to secure the money, but instead of that they went both to a night-house, where they sat drinking together till it was light.

Cooper being acquainted with the business Bradley had done, and shewed the booty, put all but the negotiable notes and bills of private persons, which they destroyed, in a box, and buried it in his cellar.

It was very strange that Wesket and Bradley should be so careless to secure what they had with so much danger obtained. Wesket gave Bradley the whole booty without knowing its value, and Bradley suffered Cooper to keep it where he might at any time have access to it without his consent, or even knowledge; neither did he examine what he had got till it had been thus deposited near a month.

When a maid servant of lord Harrington's came down stairs on Sunday morning, the day after the robbery, between seven and eight o'clock, she found the street door wide open; and, as she was laying the fire in the steward's room, Wesket came to the door, and asked her if she had let in an old man, that used to be frequently about the house; she said, no, but that the door was wide open when she came down stairs; upon which he turned away, and said, D—n it, who could go and leave the door open?

Between ten and eleven my lord came out of his chamber into the room where the bureau stood, and immediately perceived that it had been broke open. A search was immediately made to discover where the thief had got in or out. The dirt on the dresser in the kitchen, and against the window, was observed, and the window also was found open; but as rogues are always cunning by halves, Wesket, when he contrived these appearances of persons having come in or out of that window, had not taken care to have him traced out of the place into which he must have come from the window; this place was inclosed with a wall about five feet high, and the top of the wall was overgrown with moss, so that, if any body had got over it, a mark must have been seen; the appearance therefore of dirt about the window, and its being open, only confirmed the notion, that the robbery must have been committed by a servant.

The steward went to the lodge and examined Wesket's shoes, which he found clean. The marks of a gimblet and chissel being found on the bureau, a little box of tools that was kept in a place, where all the servants had access to it, was searched, and a gimblet and chissel were found that exactly answered the marks. This was further evidence that a domestic was the thief. Lord Harrington, therefore, sent for Mr. Spinnage, a justice of peace, to examine the servants; and Wesket was chiefly suspected, as my lord's footman and valet de chambre were newly come, and the prisoner was the only person in the house, except the steward and a maid or two, that knew the drawers where the bills and money were; his box was searched, and a drinking horn was found with sixteen guineas in it; but nothing else appearing,

and he alledging he had received it for wages, he was not taken into cuſtody, nor did any thing appear that juſtified a ſuſpicion of any other perſon in the family.

Weſket, however, was not long afterwards turned away. The firſt time Bradley ſaw him after the robbery, was in a ſide box at the play. Bradley, who was in the gallery, met him as he came out, and they went together to a houſe in the Piazza, Covent Garden, where Weſket ſaid every thing was ſafe, meaning that the enquiry had ended in nothing, and was ſatisfied with Bradley's account of the things.

After this they met ſeveral times, when Weſket blamed Bradley for not putting off the bank notes; Bradley then propoſed to go abroad with them, having been abroad before; but Weſket telling him my lord was well known at all the courts of Europe, he determined to carry them to Cheſter fair.

To Cheſter, therefore, he went, at the Midſummer fair of 1764, and pretending to be a young trader, he bought ſome linen of the Iriſh factors, and changed both his bank notes, taking linen and caſh, and bills on perſons in London, in exchange.

The bills they got accepted and paid, and had now reaſon to think themſelves ſafe beyond a poſſibility of detection, if they did not betray each other. They were, however, diſcovered by an accident ſo remarkable, that it would probably have been blamed as exceeding probability, if it had been made an incident in a novel.

Some time after Weſket had been diſcharged from his place, a gentleman happened to pick up a woman of the town, in Conduit-ſtreet; and in the courſe of their converſation at a tavern, ſhe told him, that ſhe had been ſeduced, under pretence of marriage, by John Weſket, who lived porter with lord Harrington when he was robbed; and ſhe gave ſuch an account of his manner of dreſſing and living, that the gentleman brought her to Sir John Fielding.

She ſaid that ſhe firſt became acquainted with Weſket, after his quitting lord Harrington's, that ſhe had lived with him, that they had been parted about a month, but that ſhe ſtill went by his name. She gave an account, alſo, of his acquaintance, and, among them, of Bradley, and put into the juſtice's hand ſome letters, which ſhe had received from Weſket's acquaintance while ſhe lived with him, among which was one written by Bradley. She ſaid alſo, that ſhe had very lately ſeen ſixty guineas in Weſket's poſſeſſion.

Sir John, upon this information, had Weſket taken into cuſtody, and examined him; he alſo upon ſearching his box found ſixty guineas. Weſket could not account ſatisfactorily for this money, but there being nothing elſe found, he was diſcharged, notwithſtanding the ſuſpicion againſt him was ſtrengthened by the money.

An attempt was made to take Bradley into cuſtody, but he could not be found.

In the mean time, lord Harrington, happening to have an exact deſcription of the thirty pound bank note, had advertiſed it; and about

about the 6th of September, just nine months after the robbery, his lordship received notice, that this note had been presented for payment by a banker's clerk. This note being secured, was traced, through a great number of hands, to one Smith a merchant of Liverpool, who being applied to declared, that he had it of Mr. Beath, a linen factor of Newry, in the north of Ireland.

Upon application by letter to Mr. Beath, to know of whom he received it, he wrote for answer, that he received it at Chester fair, in payment for some linen, of a person who called himself John Walker of London, a low, thin-faced pale man, somewhat pitted with the small pox, and slender, his eyes sore or inflamed, and a large tumour on his hand. Mr. Beath added, that he was a bad clerk, that he wore either a wig or his hair in a long queue; and in a postscript said, that he was dressed like a gentleman, but appeared somewhat under that standard in conversation.

This last distinction, which shews great good sense and nice discernment, was the characteristic of a man, who had lived as valet-de-chambre with persons of rank; it does not however appear, that either the justice or any other of the parties suspected this Walker to be Bradley, or that they enquired of the woman, whether Bradley's person corresponded with Mr. Beath's description; if they had, they would have taken a nearer way to their end. On the contrary, Mr. Bevel set out for Chester to enquire where Walker had lodged, and by what carriage the cloth he bought had been sent to town, and how it was directed.

After much enquiry he found, that the person, who called himself Walker, lodged at one Rippington's, a shoemaker; and that he carried the linen away with him in a post-chaise towards London; he learnt also that the boy, who drove the chaise the first stage from Chester to Whitchurch, brought a letter back to Rippington, desiring him to look behind the glass in the room where he had lain, for an old pocket-book, which he had left behind him, and to send it directed to John Walker, to be left at the Blossoms Inn in London, till called for; the book, however, could not be found, and Rippington soon after received another letter from London, as from a friend of Walker's, desiring him to send the book, which was not yet come to hand, and to advise him of the conveyance by a letter directed to Mr. Davis, at St. Clement's coffee-house in the Strand, London.

This letter Rippington gave to Bevel, and Bevel brought it to Sir John Fielding. The master of the coffee-house was ordered to stop the person who should come for a letter directed to Davis, which letter he had already received; but Bradley, who had assumed many names on various occasions, had forgot what name he ordered Rippington's answer to be directed to, and enquiring for it at the coffee-house by another name, he escaped detection.

Here then the hunters were at fault; but upon comparing the letter

ter written to Rippington from London, and given by him to Bevel, and by Bevel to Sir John Fielding, with the letters that had been put into Sir John's hand by the woman, it appeared exactly to correspond with that written by Bradley; his father was found to live in Clerkenwell, and, with several others of his relations, examined; their description of his person was found minutely to agree with the description given of the supposed Walker by Mr. Beath, and it also came out, that he had been at Chester during the last Midsummer fair, and had lodged at one Cooper's, a chandler, in New Turnstile, Holborn. Upon this Cooper was sent for, who said that Bradley had left his house about six weeks before, that he did not know whither he was gone, and that he took nothing away with him. Upon this Bradley was publicly advertised, hand bills were dispersed all over the kingdom, persons planted at all the ale-houses he used to frequent, and every other method used to discover and apprehend him.

These steps produced a man who accidentally heard one Bradshaw, a coachman, who drives a jobb at Gerrard's Hall Inn, say in an alehouse, that he had got a large chest of Bradley's in his hayloft; on this information Bradshaw and the chest were sent for. The chest was found to contain the linen that was bought at Chester, and the coachman said he brought the chest in a coach about six weeks before from the house of one Cooper in Turnstile.

Cooper was then sent for again, and being confronted with Bradshaw, confessed what he had before obstinately denied, that he knew of the chest going to Gerrard's Hall Inn. He was then threatened to be committed for concealing this circumstance, as an accessary after the fact, upon which he confessed, that he knew Wesket and Bradley committed the robbery on lord Harrington, Bradley having told him the very night it was committed, that he was going to Wesket, who was to conceal him in the house for that purpose, till the family was in bed. He added, that the booty had been buried in his cellar, where some part of it still remained.

The cellar was then searched, and the gold snuff-boxes, and several other things, were found, which were sworn to be lord Harrington's property.

Soon after, Bradley was apprehended in a sailor's habit at Wapping, and brought before Sir John Fielding; Cooper was there also, at the same time; and Bradley observing that he attempted to become evidence for the crown against him and Wesket; and that at the same time he denied and concealed many principal transactions relative to that and other robberies in which he had been concerned, he, at once, without any promise of favour, declared the whole truth; and it being the opinion of the magistrate and all present, that Wesket and Cooper were the greater villains, Bradley was admitted as an evidence against them. Wesket was indicted for the robbery, Cooper for receiving the goods, and both being convicted upon proof of the facts that have been related in this narrative, Wesket was executed, and Cooper transported for 14 years.

A List of the Supplies, and Ways and Means, from the Revolution to the End of the Year 1763.

				Summary of the total yearly Supplies.			*Summary of the total yearly* Ways *and* Means.		
1st	Will. & Mary	1688	—	2.908,680	—	—	— 2.743,142	6	2
2	——	—— 9	—	3.668,191	10	—	— 3.768,191	10	—
3	——	—— 90	—	4.656,255	—	—	— 2.651,702	18	—
4	——	—— 1	—	3.676,677	16	3	— 1.816,702	18	—
5	——	—— 2	—	4.017,080	9	6	— 2.000,000	—	—
6	——	—— 3	—	5.549,087	15	7	— 5.588,506	5	10
7	——	—— 4	—	4.882,712	—	—	— 5.413,709	11	1
1st	William III.	5	—	5.537,853	19	11	— 8.161,469	—	—
2	——	—— 6	—	5.520,078	19	11	— 5.600,000	—	—
3	——	—— 7	—	8.237,210	18	1½	— 5.184,015	1	11¾
4	——	—— 8	—	2.350.000	—	—	— 1.484,015	—	—
5	——	—— 9	—	981,342	—	—	— 1.000,000	—	—
6	——	1700	—	2.886,536	14	6	— 2.620,000	—	—
7	——	—— 1	—	4.380,045	11	—	— 6.913,628	15	5¾
1st	Anne	—— 2	—	3.535,457	7	2	— 3.887,630	—	—
2	——	—— 3	—	4.005,369	8	6	— 4.200,000	—	—
3	——	—— 4	—	4.717,488	3	4	— 4.914,888	3	3½
4	——	—— 5	—	5.075,761	16	2	— 5.282,233	17	2
5	——	—— 6	—	5.941,841	14	10¼	— 6.142,381	15	6¼
6	——	—— 7	—	5.926,849	18	6¾	— 6.189,067	15	6¾
7	——	—— 8	—	6.563,138	10	10½	— 6.868,839	—	—
8	——	—— 9	—	6.425,268	10	2¼	— 6.896,552	9	11¾
9	——	1710	—	14.370,744	5	4¾	— 16.246,325	—	—
10	——	—— 11	—	6.671,386	1	10½	— 6,304,615	16	9½
11	——	—— 12	—	3.520,072	10	5½	— 3.400,000	—	—
12	——	—— 13	—	3.062,079	3	11	— 3.100,000	—	—
1st	George I.	14	—	3.282,223	16	6½	7 — 7.317,751	15	6½
2	——	—— 15	—	3.053,363	5	11½	5		
3	——	—— 16	—	3.097,767	13	6¾	— 3.211,313	1	—
4	——	—— 17	—	2.644,437	4	8¾	— 2.229,514	3	2½
5	——	—— 18	—	2.989,109	11	10 19/20	— 2.735,509	3	2½
6	——	—— 19	—	2.623,537	14	9 7/20	— 2.742.000	17	10¾
7	——	1720	—	2.738,156	3	2 7/20	— 2.920,264	13	8
8	——	—— 1	—	2.923,108	18	— 1/20	— 2.719,412	10	9
9	——	—— 2	—	1.935,054	16	6 13/20	— 1.837,799	8	2½
10	——	—— 3	—	1.863,888	6	8½	— 1.730,744	19	5¾
11	——	—— 4	—	1.823,229	4	11¼	— 1.782,212	—	1¾
12	——	—— 5	—	2.978,954	1	3½	— 3.282,328	6	7¾
13	——	—— 6	—	2.895,305	—	7	— 3.173,287	12	— ¼

1ſt	George II.	1727	—	5.392,966	2	—¾	—	5.544,594	2	2¾
2	——	——	8	—	3.224,697	14	8¼	—	3.549,478	10	4¾
3	——	——	9	—	3.345,190	17	6¾	—	3.530,766	12	11
4	——		1730		2.752,833	5	4	—	3.826,825	7	—¾
5	——	——	1	—	2.784,705	3	—¼	—	2.883,180	2	5½
6	——	——	2	—	3.004,926	13	11	—	2.887,943	6	1½
7	——	——	3	—	3.870,230	17	4¾	—	3.989,689	11	10½
8	——	——	4	—	3.150,452	4	7½	—	3.269,000	—	—
9	——	——	5	—	3.225,903	15	9¼	—	3.380,565	6	10
10	——	——	6	—	3.025,172	9	6¾	—	3.269,000	—	—
11	——	——	7	—	3.444,246	—	6	—	3.769,000	—	—
12			8	—	2.633,328	9	8½	—	2,908,506	9	9
13	——	——	9	—	3.874,076	3	7¾	—	4,097,831	11	10½
14	——		1740	—	5.017,651	—	5	—	5.039,102	18	3¾
15	——	——	1	—	5.723,537	12	1¼	—	6.188,165	11	5
16	——	——	2	—	5.912,483	12	3	—	6.119,137	13	10¾
17	——	——	3	—	6.283,537	14	—¼	—	6.624,065	11	5
18	——	——	4	—	6.462,902	3	9¾	—	6.609,310	5	1¾
19	——	——	5	—	7.088,353	10	10	—	7.303,065	11	5
20	——	——	6	—	9.402,978	9	5	—	9.400,574	10	7
21	——	——	7	—	10.059,104	8	4¾	—	10.088,065	11	5
22	——	——	8	—	8.082,409	1	7½	—	8.018,007	4	4
23	——	——	9	—	4.014,136	19	7½	—	4.313,730	—	5½
24	——		1750	—	4.969,635	10	11¾	—	5.175,023	11	7
25	——	——	1	—	3.907,435	7	7	—	4.178,459	18	1½
26	——	——	2	—	2.132,707	17	2½	—	2.422,911	8	4¼
27	——	——	3	—	2.797,916	10	2	—	3.077,897	15	8½
28	——	——	4	—	4.073,779	11	6½	—	4.256,909	5	—¾
29	——	——	5	—	7.229,117	4	6¾	—	7.427,261	5	7
30	——	——	6	—	8.350,325	1	3	—	8.689,051	19	7
31	——	——	7	—	10.486,447	—	1	—	11,079,722	6	10
32	——	——	8	—	12.749,860	19	4$\frac{15}{28}$	—	12.991,240	—	10
33	——	——	9	—	15.503,564	15	9½	—	16.130,561	9	8
1ſt	George III.	1760	—	19.616,119	19	9¾	—	19.953,922	9	11
2	——	——	1	—	18.299,153	18	11½	—	18.655,750	2	7½
3	——	——	2	—	13.522,040	18	6$\frac{12}{30}$$\frac{9}{8}$	—	14.199,375	16	—
	Totals			£.	399.929,285	10	9$\frac{2}{5}$$\frac{3}{1}$$\frac{2}{3}$$\frac{3}{0}$	£.	408.898,369	6	4½

SUP-

SUPPLIES granted by Parliament, for the Service of the Year 1764.

DECEMBER 5.

	£.	s.	d.
1. THAT there be granted to his majeſty, for the marriage portion of her royal highneſs the princeſs Auguſta, his majeſty's ſiſter — —	80000	0	0
2. That 16000 men be employed for the ſea ſervice, for 1764, including 4287 marines. 3. That a ſum not exceeding 4l. *per* man *per* month be allowed for maintaining them, for thirteen months, including ordnance for ſea ſervice —	832000	0	0
	912000	0	0

DECEMBER 6.

1. That a number of land forces, including 2739 invalids, amounting to 17532 effective men, commiſſion and non-commiſſion officers included, be employed for 1764. 2. For defraying the charge of the ſaid number of men, for guards, garriſons, and other his majeſty's land forces in Great Britain, Guernſey, and Jerſey, for 1764 —— ——	617704	17	10 ⅞
3. For maintaining his majeſty's forces and garriſons in the plantations, including thoſe in garriſon at Minorca and Gibraltar, and for proviſions for the garriſons of Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, Gibraltar, and Quebec, for 1764 ——	372774	6	4 ¾
4. For the pay of the general, and general ſtaff officers, in Great Britain, for 1764 ——	11322	7	3
5. Upon account, for the reduced officers of his majeſty's land forces and marines, for 1764 ——	30188	18	0
6. Upon account, for the reduced officers of his majeſty's land forces, reduced and diſbanded in the year 1763, and ſuch as are to be reduced and diſbanded in the year 1764 —— ——	125455	13	0
7. For defraying the charge for allowances to the ſeveral officers and private gentlemen of the two troops of horſe guards, and regiment of horſe, reduced, and to the ſuperannuated gentlemen of the four troops of horſe guards, for 1764 —— —— —	2605	15	0

8. To

	£.	s.	d.
8. To enable his majesty to defray the charge of the subsidies due to the duke of Brunswick, pursuant to treaties, for the year 1764 —	43901	3	$7\frac{3}{11}$
9. For the ordinary of the navy, including half pay to sea and marine officers, for 1764 —	398568	11	9
10. For carrying on the building of four houses for the officers of the hospital lately erected at Plymouth — — — —	3000	0	0
11. Upon account, to be applied by the commissioners or governors of Greenwich hospital, for the support and relief of seamen worn out and become decrepit in the service of their country, who shall not be provided for within the hospital — — —	10000	0	0
12. For the charge of the office of ordnance, for land service, for 1764 — —	173080	8	6
13. For defraying the expence of services performed by the said office, and not provided for by parliament, in 1763 — — —	52359	8	1
	1840961	9	$6\frac{3}{55}$

JANUARY 19.

Towards the buildings, rebuildings, and repairs of his majesty's ships for 1764 — —	200000	0	0

JANUARY 27.

1. That provision be made for enabling his majesty to satisfy all such bills, payable in course of the navy and victualling offices, and for transports, made out on or before the 31st of December 1762, as were not converted into annuities, after the rate of 4l. *per cent. per ann.* in pursuance of an act made in the last session of parliament, amounting to — — —	179229	6	6
Towards enabling the trustees of the British Museum, to carry on the execution of the trust reposed in them by parliament — —	2000	0	0
	181229	6	6

FEBRUARY 2.

Towards enabling the commissioners for putting in execution an act made in the second year of his majesty's reign, intituled, *An act for paving, &c. the streets of Westminster, &c.* more effectually to perform the trusts reposed in them, one sum, part thereof, not exceeding 5000l. to be paid to the said commissioners, on or before the 5th of April,

	£.	s.	d.
April, 1764, and another ſum, not exceeding 50000l. the other part thereof, to be paid to them, on or before the 5th of April, 1765 — —	10000	0	0
FEBRUARY 6.			
For paying off, and diſcharging the exchequer bills made out, by virtue of an act paſſed laſt ſeſſion, intituled, *An act for raiſing a certain ſum of money by loans or exchequer bills, for 1763, and for further appropriating, &c.* and charged upon the firſt aids or ſupplies to be granted in this ſeſſion — — — —	1800000	0	0
MARCH 1.			
1. To replace to the ſinking fund the like ſum iſſued thereout, for the half year's payment due the 29th of September, 1763, on the annuities after the rate of 4l. *per cent. per ann.* granted in reſpect of certain navy, victualling, and tranſport bills, and ordnance debentures, delivered in and cancelled, purſuant to an act made in the laſt ſeſſion — — —	69671	1	2
2. To replace to the ſinking fund the like ſum paid out of the ſame, to make good the deficiency on the 5th of July, 1763, of the ſeveral rates and duties upon offices and penſions, and upon houſes, and upon windows and lights, which were made a fund by an act of the 31ſt of the reign of his late majeſty, for paying annuities to the bank of England, in reſpect of five millions borrowed towards the ſupply of 1758 — — —	41223	1	6
3. To replace to the ſinking fund the like ſum paid out of the ſame, to make good the deficiency on the 10th of October, 1763, of the ſeveral additional duties upon wines imported into this kingdom, and certain duties upon all cyder and perry, which were made a fund by an act of the late ſeſſion, for paying annuities, in reſpect of 3500000l. borrowed towards the ſupply of 1763 — —	36699	15	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
4. To make good to his majeſty the like ſum, which has been iſſued, by his majeſty's orders, in purſuance of the addreſſes of this houſe —	7350	0	0
5. For defraying the extraordinary expences of his majeſty's land forces, and other ſervices, incurred between the 20th of February, 1763, and the			

	£.	s.	d.
the 25th of December following, and not provided for by parliament — —	823876	12	2 ½
6. (Out of the monies or ſavings remaining of the grant in laſt ſeſſion, for pay of the troops of the duke of Brunſwick, and for ſubſidies, and of the grants in ſeveral former ſeſſions, for defraying the charge of five battalions, ſerving in the late army in Germany, with a corps of artillery) towards defraying the extraordinary expences of his majeſty's land forces, and other ſervices, incurred from the 20th of February, 1763, to the 25th of December following, and not provided for by parliament —	102469	19	3 ¹⁵/₁₆
7. (Out of certain ſavings of public monies, and out of monies ariſen by the ſale of his majeſty's ſtores in Germany and Portugal, which have been paid to the paymaſter general of his majeſty's land forces) towards defraying the extraordinary expences of his majeſty's land forces, and other ſervices, incurred from the 20th of February, 1763, to the 25th of December following, and not provided for by parliament — — —	61088	4	0
8. Upon account, towards defraying the charge of out-penſioners of Chelſea hoſpital, for 1764 —	103794	2	0
9. To make good a deficiency in the ſum voted laſt ſeſſion, upon account, towards defraying the charge of out-penſioners of Chelſea hoſpital for 1763 — —	18331	17	11
10. For the paying of penſions to the widows of ſuch reduced officers of his majeſty's land forces and marines, as died upon the eſtabliſhment of half-pay in Great Britain, and who were married to them before the 25th of December, 1716, for 1764 — — —	1696	0	0
11. Upon account, for maintaining and ſupporting the civil eſtabliſhment of Nova Scotia, for 1764 — —	5703	14	11
12. Upon account, for defraying the charges of the civil eſtabliſhment of Georgia, and other incidental expences attending the ſame, from the 24th of June, 1763, to the 24th of June, 1764 — — —	4031	8	8
13. Upon account, for defraying the charges of the civil eſtabliſhment of Eaſt Florida, and other incidental expences attending the ſame, from			

	£.	s.	d.
from the 24th of June, 1763, to the 24th of June, 1764 — — —	5700	0	0
14. Upon account, for defraying the charges of the civil eſtabliſhment of Weſt Florida, and other incidental expences attending the ſame, from the 24th of June, 1763, to the 24th of June, 1764	5700	0	0
15. Upon account, for defraying the expence attending general ſurveys of his majeſty's dominions in North America, for 1764 — —	1818	9	0
16. To be applied towards encouraging and enabling John Blake, eſq; further to carry into execution the plan concerted by him, for the better ſupplying the cities of London and Weſtminſter with fiſh at moderate rates —	2500	0	0
	1291654	6	$1\frac{3}{4}$

MARCH 13.

1. Towards paying off and diſcharging the debt of the navy — — — —	650000	0	6
2. To make good the deficiency of the grants for the ſervice of 1763 — —	129489	0	3
	779489	0	3

MARCH 19.

For paying a bounty, for 1764, of 2s. 6d. *per* day to fifteen chaplains, and of 2s. *per* day to fifteen more chaplains, who have ſerved longeſt on board his majeſty's ſhips of war, provided it appears, by the books of the ſaid ſhips, that they have been actually borne and muſtered thereon, for the ſpace of four years, during the late war with France and Spain; and provided likewiſe, that ſuch chaplains do not enjoy the benefit of ſome eccleſiaſtical living, or preferment, from the crown, or otherwiſe, of the preſent annual value of 50l. — —	1231	17	6

MARCH 22.

1. To enable the commiſſioners appointed by virtue of an act made in the ſecond year of the preſent reign, intituled, *An act for veſting certain lands, &c.* to make compenſation to the ſeveral owners and proprietors of ſuch lands, &c. in the counties of Kent, Suſſex, and Southampton, as have been purchaſed for the purpoſes mentioned in the ſaid act, and for damages done to the lands adjacent — —	545	15	0

	£.	s.	d.
2. Upon account, for defraying the charge of the pay and cloathing of the militia, for one year, beginning the 25th of March, 1764 —	80000	0	0
	80545	15	0

APRIL 2.

To make good the intereſt of the ſeveral principal ſums to be paid in purſuance of the ſaid *act for veſting certain lands, &c.* to the 24th of June, 1764 —	103	13	9¼

APRIL 5.

1. Upon account, towards enabling the governors and guardians of the foundling hoſpital, to maintain and educate ſuch children, as were received into the ſaid hoſpital on or before the 25th of March, 1760, from the 31ſt of December, 1763, excluſive, to the 31ſt of December, 1764, incluſive; and to be iſſued and paid, for the uſe of the ſaid hoſpital, without fee or reward, or any deduction whatſoever —	38347	10	0
2. To be employed in maintaining and ſupporting the Britiſh forts and ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa —	20000	0	0
3. To enable his majeſty to make good to Samuel Touchet of London, merchant, all the expence he has incurred in fitting out ſeveral veſſels employed in the late ſucceſsful expedition for the reduction of the French forts and ſettlements in the river Senegal, and to ſatisfy to him all claims and demands whatſoever, on the commiſſioners of his majeſty's navy, or on any officer, or officers, employed in the ſaid expedition, for ſuch of the ſaid veſſels as were loſt, or taken into his majeſty's ſervice —	7000	0	0
	65347	10	0

APRIL 7.

1. Upon account, towards diſcharging ſuch unſatisfied claims and demands for expences incurred during the late war in Germany, as appear to be due by the reports of the commiſſioners appointed by his majeſty, for examining and ſtating ſuch claims and demands —	329093	17	4
2. That the ſum of 170906l. 2s. 8d. ariſing from certain ſavings made upon the non-effective accounts of ſeveral regiments, and reſerved in the office of the paymaſter general, be granted to his majeſty, upon account, towards diſcharging ſuch unſatisfied claims			

claims and demands for expences, incurred during the late war in Germany, as appear to be due by the reports of the ſaid commiſſioners —— —	170906	2	8
3. On account, towards aſſiſting his majeſty to grant a reaſonable ſuccour in money to the land-grave of Heſſe Caſſel, purſuant to treaty —	50000	0	0
	570000	0	0
Sum total of the ſupplies granted in this ſeſſion	771256	18	7 2/5

Ways and means for raiſing the above ſupply granted to his majeſty, agreed to on the following days, viz.

DECEMBER 8.

1. THAT the duties on malt, &c. be continued to the 24th of June, 1765, 750,000l.

2. That a land tax of 4s. in the pound be raiſed, in the uſual manner, for one year, from the 25th of March, 1764, 2.037,854l. 19 s. 11 d.

FEB. 6.

That all perſons intereſted in, or intitled unto, ſuch of the bills payable in courſe of the navy or victualling offices, or for tranſports, made out on or before the 31ſt day of December 1762, as have not been converted into annuities, after the rate of 4 l. per centum per annum, in purſuance of an act of the laſt ſeſſion of parliament, who ſhall, on or before the firſt day of March next, carry the ſame (after having had the intereſt, due thereupon to the 25th day of March 1763 incluſive, computed and marked upon the ſaid bills, at the navy or victualling office reſpectively) to the treaſurer of his majeſty's navy, to be marked and certified, by him or his paymaſter, to the governor and company of the bank of England, ſhall be intitled unto, and have an annuity, transferrable at the bank of England, for the principal and intereſt due on the ſaid bills, after the rate of 4l. per centum per annum, commencing from the ſaid 25th day of March 1763, in lieu of all other intereſt, until redeemed by parliament, the ſaid annuities to be charged upon the ſinking fund, and the ſums which ſhall be iſſued out of the ſinking fund, for payment of the ſaid annuities, to be, from time to time, replaced out of the next aids to be granted in parliament.

FEB. 9.

That the propoſal of the bank, for advancing the ſum of one million on exchequer bills, and for paying the ſum of 110,000 l. into the exchequer, upon ſuch terms and conditions as are therein mentioned, be accepted, 1.110,000 l.

FEB. 21.

1. That the act 9 Geo. II. chap. 37. is near expiring, and fit to be continued. 2. That the act of 4 Geo. II. chap. 29. is near expiring, and fit to be continued. 3. That ſo much of an act of 8 Geo. I. chap. 12. as relates to the

importation of wood and timber, and of the goods commonly called lumber, therein particularly enumerated, from any of his majesty's plantations or colonies in America, free from all customs and impositions whatsoever, is near expiring, and fit to be continued.

MARCH 10.

1. That a duty of 2l. 19s. 9d. sterling money, per hundred weight, avoirdupois, be laid upon all foreign coffee, imported from any place (except from Great Britain) into the British colonies and plantations in America. 2. That a duty of six pence, sterling money, per pound weight, avoirdupois, be laid upon all foreign indico, imported into the said colonies and plantations. 3. That a duty of 7 l. sterling money, per ton, be laid upon all wine of the growth of the Madeiras, or of any other island or place, lawfully imported from the respective place of the growth of such wine, into the said colonies and plantations. 4. That a duty of 10 s. sterling money, per ton, be laid upon all Portugal, Spanish, or any other wine (except French wine) imported from Great Britain, into the said colonies and plantations. 5. That a duty of 2s. sterling money, per pound weight, avoirdupois, be laid upon all wrought silks, Bengals, and stuffs mixed with silk or herba, of the manufacture of Persia, China, or East-India, imported from Great Britain, into the said colonies and plantations. 6. That a duty of 2s. and six pence, sterling money, per piece, be laid upon all callicoes, painted, dyed, printed, or stained, in Persia, China or East-India, imported from Great Britain into the said colonies and plantations. 7. That a duty of 3s. sterling money, per piece, be laid upon all foreign linen cloth, called cambrick, and upon all French lawns imported from Great Britain, into the said colonies and plantations. 8. That a duty of 7s. sterling money, per hundred weight avoirdupois, be laid upon all coffee, shipped in any British colony or plantation in America, being the place of the growth thereof, in order to be exported or conveyed to any other place, except to Great Britain. 9. That a duty of one half-penny, sterling money, per pound weight avoirdupois, be laid upon all pimento shipped in any British colony or plantation in America, being the place of the growth thereof, in order to be exported or conveyed to any other place except to Great Britain. 10. That an act, made in the 6th Geo. II. chap. 13. be continued until the 30th of September, 1764. 11. That the said act be, with the amendments, made perpetual, from the 29th day of September, 1764. 12. That, from and after the said 29th day of September, 1764, in lieu of the duty granted by the said act upon molasses and syrups, a duty of three pence sterling money per gallon, be laid upon all molasses and syrups of the growth, product, or manufacture, of any foreign American colony or plantation imported into the British colonies and plantations in America. 13. That the produce of all the said duties, and also of the duties which shall, from and after the said 29th day of September, 1764, be raised, by virtue of the said act,

act, made in the ſixth year of the reign of his ſaid late majeſty king George the ſecond, be paid into the receipt of his majeſty's exchequer, and there reſerved, to be from time to time diſpoſed of by parliament, towards defraying the neceſſary expences of defending, protecting, and ſecuring, the Britiſh colonies and plantations in America. 14. That, towards further defraying the ſaid expences, it may be proper to charge certain ſtamp duties in the ſaid colonies and plantations. 15. That there be not any drawback allowed of any part of the rate or duty commonly called the old ſubſidy upon any foreign goods (except wines) of the growth, production, or manufacture, of Europe, or the Eaſt Indies, exported from this kingdom, to the Britiſh colonies and plantations in America. 16. That there be not any drawback allowed of any part of any rate or duty upon any white callicoes, or foreign linens, exported from this kingdom, to the Britiſh colonies and plantations in America. 17. That the duties impoſed in the Britiſh colonies and plantations in America, by an act made in the 25th Year of the reign of king Charles the ſecond, intituled, *An act for the encouragement of the Greenland and Eaſtland trades, and for the better ſecuring the plantation trade*, be declared to be ſterling money. 18. That the importation of rum and ſpirits, of the produce or manufacture of any foreign American colony or plantation, into the Britiſh colonies and plantations in America, be prohibited. 19. That the annuities, granted anno 1761, for a certain term of 99 years, from the 5th day of January, 1761, transferrable at the bank of England, be, from the 5th day of January, 1764, with the conſent of the ſeveral proprietors, added to, and made a joint ſtock with, the annuities which were granted anno 1762, for a certain term of 98 years, from the 5th day of January, 1762, transferrable at the bank of England; and that the charges and expences thereof be charged upon, and paid out of, the ſinking fund, in the ſame and like manner as thoſe of the ſaid annuities granted anno 1762, are paid and payable; and that ſuch perſons as ſhall not, on or before the 1ſt day of June, 1764, ſignify their diſſent in books to be opened at the bank of England for that purpoſe, ſhall be deemed and taken to aſſent thereto. 20. That the 3 per cent. annuities, granted anno 1761, in reſpect of the ſum of twelve millions borrowed towards the ſupply of the year 1761, together with the charges and expences attending the ſame, be, with the like conſent of the ſeveral proprietors thereof, charged upon, and made payable out of, the ſinking fund. 21. That all the monies that have ariſen, ſince the 5th day of January, 1764, or that ſhall and may hereafter ariſe, of the produce of the additional duty upon ſtrong beer and ale, which was made a fund for payment of the 3 per cent. annuities, granted in reſpect of the ſum of twelve millions borrowed by virtue of an act 1 Geo. III. towards the ſupply of the year 1761, and alſo of the annuities for a certain term of 99 years, granted in reſpect

ſpect of the ſame ſum, be carried to, and made part of, the ſinking fund. 22. That, towards raiſing the ſupply granted to his majeſty, there be iſſued and applied the ſum of two millions, out of ſuch monies, as ſhall or may ariſe of the ſurpluſſes, exceſſes, or overplus monies, and other revenues, compoſing the fund commonly called the ſinking fund, 2.000,000l.

MARCH 13.

1. That an additional duty of 11l. 2s. ſterling money, per hundred weight avoirdupois, be laid upon all white or clayed ſugars, of the produce or manufacture of any foreign American colony or plantation imported into any Britiſh colony or plantation in America. 2. That the produce of the ſaid additional duty be paid into the receipt of his majeſty's exchequer, and there reſerved to be, from time to time, diſpoſed of by parliament, towards defraying the neceſſary expences of defending, protecting, and ſecuring, the Britiſh colonies and plantations in America. 3. That upon all wines (except French wines) exported as merchandize, from this kingdom, to the Britiſh colonies and plantations in America, a drawback be allowed of all the duties paid on the importation of ſuch wines, except 3l. 10s. per ton, part of the additional duty of 4l. per ton, granted by an act made in the laſt ſeſſion of parliament; and alſo except ſuch part of the duties paid upon wines, imported by ſtrangers or aliens, or in foreign ſhips, as exceeds what would have been payable upon ſuch wines, if the ſame had been imported by Britiſh ſubjects and in Britiſh ſhips. 4. That no allowance be made for leakage, upon the importation of any wines into this kingdom, unleſs ſuch wines be imported directly from the place of their growth, or from the uſual place of their firſt ſhipping, except only Madeira wines, imported from any of the Britiſh colonies or plantations in America, or from the Eaſt Indies. 5. That any perſon, or perſons, be permitted to import, in ſhips belonging to his majeſty's ſubjects, whale fins, taken from whales caught, by any of his majeſty's ſubjects, in the gulph or river of St. Lawrence, or in any ſeas on the coaſts of any of his majeſty's colonies in America, without paying any cuſtom, ſubſidy, or duty, for the ſame (other than and except the rate or duty commonly called the old ſubſidy) for the term of ſeven years, from the 25th day of December, 1763.

MARCH 15.

1. That the perſons intereſted in, or intitled unto, all or any of the bills payable in courſe of the navy or victualling offices, or for tranſports, made out on or before the 31ſt of December, 1762, which in purſuance of a reſolution of this houſe of the 6th of February laſt, have been delivered to the treaſurer of his majeſty's navy, in order to be converted into annuities, as mentioned in the ſaid reſolution, and who, inſtead of ſuch annuities, ſhall chuſe to receive the principal and intereſt due on ſuch bills to the time of the payment thereof, and ſhall, in books to be opened for that purpoſe, at the office of the ſaid treaſurer, expreſs their conſent thereunto, on or before

fore the thirty-firſt day of this preſent inſtant March, ſhall be intitled to receive ſuch principal and intereſt in diſcharge of the ſaid bills, out of the money granted to his majeſty in this ſeſſion of parliament, towards paying off and diſcharging the debt of the navy, upon their delivering up the notes or receipts iſſued for the ſame, in like manner as if they had not delivered the ſaid bills to the treaſurer of his majeſty's navy, according to the reſolution of this houſe of the 6th of February laſt; and that ſuch of the ſaid bills, for and in reſpect whereof ſuch conſent ſhall not be ſo expreſſed on or before the thirty-firſt day of this preſent inſtant March, be converted into annuities as mentioned in the ſaid reſolution, and conſolidated with the annuities granted by an act of the laſt ſeſſion of parliament, to ſatisfy certain navy, victualling, and tranſport bills, and ordnance debentures. 2. That the duties now payable upon beaver ſkins imported into Great Britain, from his majeſty's dominions in America, do ceaſe, determine, and be no longer paid. 3. That, in lieu of the ſaid former duties, there be granted to his majeſty a duty of one penny, to be paid upon the importation of every beaver ſkin into Great Britain, from his majeſty's dominions in America. 4. That there be granted to his majeſty a duty of 7 d. upon each beaver ſkin, or piece of ſuch ſkin, exported from Great Britain. 5. That there be granted to his majeſty a duty of 1 s. 6d. per pound, for all beaver wool exported from Great Britain. 6. That the ſaid duties be made applicable to the ſame purpoſes, to which the former duties upon beaver ſkins were applied. 7. That no drawback be allowed upon beaver ſkins exported from Great Britain.

MARCH 22.

1. That there be raiſed by loans or exchequer bills, to be charged upon the firſt aids to be granted in the next ſeſſion, and ſuch exchequer bills, if not diſcharged, with intereſt thereupon, on or before the 5th of April, 1765, to be exchanged and received in payment, in ſuch manner as exchequer bills have uſually been exchanged, and received in payment, the ſum of 800000 l. 2. That the ſum of 3497 l. 9 s. 9 d. remaining in the receipt of the exchequer, being the ſurplus of the ſeveral duties upon beer and ale, granted by an act of the firſt of his majeſty's reign, after ſatisfying all charges and incumbrances thereupon, to the 5th of January, 1764, be iſſued and applied, towards making good the ſupply granted in this ſeſſion. 3. That ſuch part of the ſum of 150000 l. granted in the laſt ſeſſion for defraying the charge of the pay and cloathing of the militia, for one year, beginning the 25th of March, 1763, as ſhall remain in the receipt of the exchequer, after the ſaid charge is ſatisfied, be iſſued and applied, towards raiſing the ſupply granted in this ſeſſion. 4. That the act of the 5th of Geo. II. chap. 28. is near expiring, and fit to be continued. 5. That the act of the 6th of Geo. II. chap. 33. is near expiring, and fit to be continued. 6. That the act of the 22d of Geo. II. chap. 45. is near expiring, and fit to be continued.

The produce of many of these resolutions cannot now be certainly known. That of those, which may, is as follows:

By the two resolutions of December the 8th	2787854	19	11
By the resolution of February the 9th	1110000	0	0
By the 22d resolution of March the 10th	2000000	0	0
By the first and second resolutions of March the 22d	803497	9	9
To which if we add, first, the liquidated provisions made by the committee of supply, as follows:			
By the sixth and seventh resolutions of March 1st	163558	3	$3\frac{9}{11}$
By the second resolution of April 7th	170906	2	8
Secondly, the nett produce of the French prizes taken before the declaration of war, and vested in the crown, but graciously given up by his majesty for the service of the public	723758		
Sum total of the liquidated provisions will be	7759574	15	$7\frac{9}{11}$
Excess of provisions	47011	17	$0\frac{23}{55}$

Besides, something will probably arise from the third resolution of March the 22d, as all the regiments of militia that were in actual service were dismissed soon after the 25th of March, 1763; and there will be some saving upon the 6th resolution of the committee of supply agreed to December the 6th, as several of the reduced officers have already been put upon whole pay, and more may, before the end of the year, if any new vacancies should happen. Then, as to the first resolution of the committee of supply agreed to January 27th, there is reason to think that the whole will be saved; for as navy bills sold at 10 l. per cent. discount, at the end of March, 1764, and the lowest of our 4 l. per cent. annuities then sold for above 93 l. per cent. every man could get at the rate of 3 if not 4 l. per cent. profit, by converting his navy bills into 4 l. per cent. annuities, from whence it may be presumed, that no part, or but a very small part, of the sum granted by this resolution was ever called for. This, indeed, increased our national debt, but it diminished the sum total of the supplies, and consequently increases this redundancy, so that the whole of what may be produced by the above mentioned duties in the British American colonies and by the other unliquidated provisions made by the committee of ways and means, will be so much money in hand, and to be disposed of by the next following session.

An

An account of all the Public Debts, *at the receipt of the* Exchequer, *ſtanding out* Jan. 5, 1764, *with the annual intereſt or other charges payable for the ſame.*

	Principal debt.			Annual intereſt or other charges payable for the ſame.		
EXCHEQUER.	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*
Annuities for long terms, being the remainder of the original ſum contributed and unſubſcribed to the South-Sea company	1.836,275	17	10¾	136,453	12	8
Ditto for lives, with the benefit of ſurvivorſhip, being the original ſum contributed	108,100	—	—	7,567	—	—
Ditto for two and three lives, being the ſum remaining after what is fallen in by deaths	75,405	14	10¾	9,143	12	—
Exchequer bills made out for intereſt of old bills	2,200	—	—	—	—	—
Note. The land taxes and duties on malt, being annual grants, are not charged in this account, nor the 1.000,000 l. charged on the deduction of 6d. *per* pound on penſions, nor the ſum of 1.800,000 l. charged on the ſurplus, *anno* 1764.						
EAST INDIA Company.						
By two acts of parliament 9 Will. III. and two other acts 6 and 9 Anne, at 3 *per cent. per ann.*	3.200,000	—	—	97,285	14	4
Annuities at 3 *per cent.* anno 1744, charged on the ſurplus of the additional duties on low wines, ſpirits, and ſtrong waters	1.000,000	—	—	30,401	15	8
BANK of ENGLAND.						
On their original fund at 3l. *per cent.* from 1 Aug. 1743	3.200,000	—	—	100,000	—	—
For cancelling Exchequer bills 3 Geo. I.	500,000	—	—	15,000	—	—
Purchaſed of the South-ſea company	4.000,000	—	—	121,898	3	5 1/2
Annuities at 3 *per cent.* charged on the ſurplus of the funds for lottery, 1714	1.250,000	—	—	37,500	—	—
Ditto at 3 *per cent.* charged on the duties on coals ſince Lady-day, 1719	1.750,000	—	—	52,500	—	—
Ditto at 3 *per cent.* charged on the duties on licences for retailing ſpirituous liquors ſince Lady-day, 1746	986,800	—	—	29,604	—	—
Ditto at 3 *per cent.* charged on the ſinking fund by the acts 25, 28, 29, 32, and 33 George II. 21.127,821 5 1¼						
Ditto at 3 *per cent.* charged on the duties on offices and penſions, &c. by the act 31 George II. 500,000 — —	33.627,821	5	1¼	1.027,588	5	8
Ditto at 3 *per cent.* charged on the additional duty on ſtrong beer and ale, by the act 1 George III. 12,000,000 — —						
Ditto at 3 *per cent.* charged on the ſinking fund by the act 25 George II.	17.701,323	16	4	540,996	14	0

					l.	*s.*	*d.*	
Ditto at $3\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.* charged on the ſaid fund by the act 29 George II.					1.500,000	—	—	53,343 15 0
Ditto at $3\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.* charged on the duties on offices and penſions, by the act 31 Geo. II.					4.500,000	—	—	160,031 5 —
Ditto at 4 *per cent.* charged on the ſinking fund, by the acts of the 2d of George III.					20.240,000	—	—	820,985 — —
Ditto at 4 *per cent.* charged on the additional duty on wines, &c. by the act 3 Geo. III.				2.800,000				
Ditto at 4 *per cent.* in lottery tickets charged on the ſaid fund by ſaid act				700,000	3.500,000	—	—	140,000 — —
Ditto at 4 *per cent.* to ſatisfy certain navy bills, &c. charged on the ſinking fund by the act 3 Geo. III.					3.483,553	1	10	139,342 2 4

Memorandum. The ſubſcribers of 100l. to the lottery 1745, were allowed an annuity for one life of 9 s. a ticket, which amounted to 22,500 l. but is now reduced by lives fallen in, to 18,254l. 15 s. And the ſubſcribers of 100l. to the lottery 1746, were allowed an annuity for one life of 18s. a ticket, which amounted to 45000 l. but is now reduced by lives fallen in, to 36,547 l. 10 s. and the ſubſcribers of 100l. for 3 *per cent.* annuities *anno* 1737, were allowed an annuity for one life of 1l. 2 s. 6d. which amouted to 33,750l. but now is reduced by lives fallen in to 32 485l. 17 s. 6 d. and the ſubſcribers for 100l. for 3 *per cent.* annuities, *anno* 1761, were allowed an annuity for 29 years of 1 l. 2 s. 6 d. amounting, with the charges of management to the bank of England, to 130,053l. 10 s. 3 d. which annuities are an increaſe of the annual intereſt, but cannot be added to the public debt, as no money was advanced for the ſervice; and the contributors to 12.000,000 l. for the ſervice of the year 1762, were intitled to an annuity of 1 *per cent. per annum*, to continue for 98 years, and then to ceaſe, which, with the charges of management to the bank of England, amounted to the ſum of 121,687l. 10s.

SOUTH SEA Company.								339,979 7 9
On their capital ſtock and annuities, 9 George I.					25.025,309	13	$11\frac{1}{2}$	765,326 3 $1\frac{1}{2}$
Annuities at 3 *per cent.* anno 1751, charged on the ſinking fund					2.100,000	—	—	64,181 5 —
					129.586,789	10	$-\frac{1}{4}$	4.688,177 11 —

STATE PAPERS.

Addreſs of both houſes of parliament to his majeſty, on occaſion of the publication of the North Briton, N° 45. *preſented on Monday the 5th of November, 1763, with his majeſty's moſt gracious anſwer.*

Moſt gracious ſovereign,

WE your majeſty's moſt dutiful and faithful ſubjects, the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and commons, in parliament aſſembled, having taken into our conſideration a late falſe, ſcandalous and ſeditious libel, intituled, The North Briton, N° 45. think it our indiſpenſable duty to expreſs our ſurpriſe and indignation at finding, that neither the public nor private virtues which ſo eminently intitle your majeſty to the higheſt veneration, as well as to the moſt grateful and loyal attachment of all your ſubjects, nor the gracious expreſſions of your tender care and affection for your people, in your majeſty's ſpeech from the throne at the end of the laſt ſeſſion of parliament, which has been thus infamouſly traduced, ſhould have been ſufficient to ſecure your majeſty from ſo inſolent and unexampled an indignity.

Such, indeed, has been your majeſty's uniform adherence to the principles of our happy conſtitution, and ſuch the uninterrupted harmony and good correſpondence between your majeſty and your parliament, that it is no wonder to ſee that the ſame audacious hand, which hath dared thus groſsly to affront your majeſty, ſhould, at the ſame time, violate the other ſacred regards preſcribed by the laws and conſtitution of this country; aſperſing and calumniating every branch of the legiſlature, and endeavouring to excite, amongſt all ranks of your majeſty's ſubjects, ſuch a ſpirit of diſcord and diſobedience, as could end in nothing but the total ſubverſion of all lawful government.

Permit us alſo to expreſs to your majeſty our firm perſuaſion and juſt confidence, that this moſt extravagant and outrageous attempt will prove as impotent as it is wicked; that inſtead of anſwering thoſe purpoſes for which it appears to have been calculated, it will, on the contrary, ſerve to excite in your faithful ſubjects the abhorrence of ſuch dangerous practices, to unite them more firmly in their zealous attachment to your majeſty's perſon and government, and in a due reverence for the authority of the legiſlature; and laſtly, that in conſequence of your majeſty's directions to proſecute the authors of this infamous libel, it will bring ſuch puniſhment upon thoſe who ſhall be found guilty of ſo atrocious a crime, as the laws of their country have preſcribed, and as the public juſtice and ſafety ſhall demand.

His

His majeſty's moſt gracious anſwer.

My lords and gentlemen,

"The very affectionate zeal, which you expreſs, for the vindication of my honour, and your declared reſolution to ſupport the authority of parliament, cannot fail of being extremely grateful to me. It has been hitherto, and it always ſhall be, my care to regulate my conduct according to the principles of the conſtitution. I will not therefore be wanting in carrying the laws into execution, againſt all who ſhall preſume to violate any of thoſe principles; and in this reſolution I doubt not of receiving the hearty concurrence and ſupport both of my parliament and my people."

The lords proteſt relating to the privilege of parliament, in the caſe of writing and publiſhing ſeditious libels.

Die Martis, 29 Novembris 1763.

THE order of the day for reſuming the adjourned conſideration of the report of the conference with the commons on Friday laſt being read;

The third reſolution of the commons was read, as follows:

"Reſolved by the commons in parliament aſſembled,

That privilege of parliament does not extend to the caſe of writing and publiſhing ſeditious libels, nor ought to be allowed to obſtruct the ordinary courſe of the laws, in the ſpeedy and effectual proſecution of ſo heinous and dangerous an offence."

And it being moved to agree with the commons in the ſaid reſolution;

The ſame was objected to. After long debate thereupon,

The queſtion was put, Whether to agree with the commons in the ſaid reſolution?

It was reſolved in the affirmative.

Diſſentient.

Becauſe we cannot hear without the utmoſt concern and aſtoniſhment, a doctrine advanced now, for the firſt time, in this houſe, which we apprehend to be new, dangerous, and unwarrantable, viz. That the perſonal privilege of both houſes of parliament has never held, and ought not to hold in the caſe of any criminal proſecution whatſoever; by which, all the records of parliament, all hiſtory, all the authorities of the graveſt and ſobereſt judges, are entirely reſcinded; and the fundamental principles of the conſtitution, with regard to the independence of parliament, torn up and buried under the ruins of our moſt eſtabliſhed rights.

We are at a loſs to conceive, with what view ſuch a ſacrifice ſhould be propoſed, unleſs to amplify, in effect, the juriſdiction of the inferior, by annihilating the ancient immunities of this ſuperior court.

The very queſtion itſelf, propoſed to us from the commons, and now agreed to by the lords, from the letter and ſpirit of it, contradicts this aſſertion; for, whilſt it only narrows privilege in criminal matters, it eſtabliſhes the principle. The law of privilege, touching impriſonment of the perſons of lords of parliament, as ſtated by the two ſtanding orders, de-

declares generally, that no lord of parliament, ſitting the parliament, or within the uſual times of privilege of parliament, is to be impriſoned or reſtrained, without ſentence or order of the houſe, unleſs it be for treaſon or felony, or for refuſing to give ſecurity for the peace, and refuſal to pay obedience to a writ of *habeas corpus*.

The firſt of theſe orders was made after long conſideration, upon a diſpute with the king, when the precedents of both houſes had been fully inſpected, commented upon, reported, and entered in the journals, and after the king's council had been heard. It was made in ſober times, and by a houſe of peers, not only loyal, but devoted to the crown; and it was made by the unanimous conſent of all, not one diſſenting. Theſe circumſtances of ſolemnity, deliberation, and unanimity, are ſo ſingular and extraordinary, that the like are ſcarce to be found in any inſtance among the records of parliament.

When the two caſes of ſurety for the peace, and *habeas corpus*, come to be well conſidered, it will be found that they both breathe the ſame ſpirit, and grow out of the ſame principle.

The offences that call for ſurety and *habeas corpus*, are both caſes of preſent continuing violence, the proceedings in both have the ſame end, viz. to repreſs the force, and to diſarm the offender. The proceeding ſtops in both when that end is attained; the offence is not proſecuted nor puniſhed in either; the neceſſity is equal in both, and, if privilege was allowed in either, ſo long as the neceſſity laſts, a lord of parliament would enjoy a mightier prerogative than the crown itſelf is intitled to. Laſtly, they both leave the proſecution of all miſdemeanours ſtill under privilege, and do not derogate from that great fundamental, that none ſhall be arreſted in the courſe of proſecution for any crime under treaſon and felony.

Theſe two orders compriſe the whole law of privilege, and are both of them ſtanding orders, and conſequently the fixed laws of the houſe by which we are all bound, until they are duly repealed.

The reſolution of the other houſe, now agreed to, is a direct contradiction to the rule of parliamentary privilege, laid down in the aforeſaid ſtanding orders, both in letter and ſpirit. Before the reaſons are ſtated, it will be proper to premiſe two obſervations.

Firſt, that in all caſes, where ſecurity of the peace may be required, the lord cannot be committed till that ſecurity is refuſed, and conſequently the magiſtrate will be guilty of a breach of privilege, if he commits the offender without demanding that ſecurity.

Secondly, although the ſecurity ſhould be refuſed, yet, if the party is committed generally, the magiſtrate is guilty of a breach of privilege, becauſe the party refuſing ought only to be committed till he has found ſureties; whereas, by general commitment, he is held faſt, even though he ſhould give ſureties, and can only be diſcharged by giving bail for his appearance.

This being premiſed, the firſt objection is to the generality of this

this reſolution, which as it is penn'd, denies the privilege to the ſuppoſed libeller, not only where he refuſes to give ſureties, but likewiſe throughout the whole proſecution, from the beginning to the end; ſo that, although he ſhould ſubmit to be bound, he may, notwithſtanding, be afterwards arreſted, tried, convicted, and puniſhed, ſitting the parliament, and without leave of the houſe, wherein the law of privilege is fundamentally miſunderſtood, by which no commitment whatſoever is tolerated, but that only, which is made upon the refuſal of the ſureties, or in the other excepted caſes of treaſon or felony, and the *habeas corpus*.

If privilege will not hold throughout in the caſe of a ſeditious libel, it muſt be becauſe that offence is ſuch a breach of the peace, for which ſureties may be demanded; and if it be ſo, it will readily be admitted, that the caſe comes within the exception, "Provided always, that ſureties have been refuſed, and that the party is committed only till he ſhall give ſureties."

But firſt, this offence is not a breach of the peace, it does not fall within any definition of a breach of the peace, given by any of the good writers upon that ſubject, all which breaches, from menace to actual wounding, either alone or with a multitude, are deſcribed to be acts of violence againſt the perſons, goods, or poſſeſſions, putting the ſubject in fear by blows, threats, or geſtures. Nor is this caſe of the libeller ever enumerated in any of theſe writers among the breaches of peace; on the contrary, it is always deſcribed as an act tending to excite, provoke, or produce breaches of the peace; and although a ſecretary of ſtate may be pleaſed to add the enflaming epithets of treaſonable, traiterous, or ſeditious, to a particular paper, yet no words are ſtrong enough to alter the nature of things. To ſay then, that a libel, poſſibly productive of ſuch a conſequence, is the very conſequence ſo produced, is, in other words, to declare, that the cauſe and the effect are the ſame thing.

Secondly, but if a libel could poſſibly, by any abuſe of language, or has any where been called, inadvertently, a breach of the peace, there is not the leaſt colour to ſay, that the libeller can be bound to give ſureties for the peace, for the following reaſons:

Becauſe none can be ſo bound, unleſs he be taken in the actual commitment of a breach of the peace; ſtriking, or putting ſome one or more of his majeſty's ſubjects in fear:

Becauſe there is no authority, or even ambiguous hint in any law-book, that he may be ſo bound:

Becauſe no libeller, in fact, was ever ſo bound:

Becauſe no crown-lawyer in the moſt deſpotic times ever inſiſted he ſhould be ſo bound, even in days when the preſs ſwarmed with the moſt invenom'd and virulent libels, and when the proſecutions raged with ſuch uncommon fury againſt this ſpecies of offenders; when the law of libels was ranſacked every term; when loſs of

ears, perpetual impriſonment, baniſhment, and fines of ten and twenty thouſand pounds, were the common judgments in the ſtar-chamber, and when the crown had aſſumed an uncontroulable authority over the preſs.

Thirdly, This reſolution does not only infringe the privilege of parliament, but points to the reſtraint of the perſonal liberty of every common ſubject in theſe realms, ſeeing that it does, in effect, affirm, that all men, without exception, may be bound to the peace for this offence.

By this doctrine every man's liberty, privileged as well as unprivileged, is ſurrendered into the hands of a ſecretary of ſtate; he is by this means impowered, in the firſt inſtance, to pronounce the paper to be a ſeditious libel, a matter of ſuch difficulty, that ſome have pretended, it is too high to be intruſted to a ſpecial jury of the firſt rank and condition; he is to underſtand and decide by himſelf, the meaning of every inuendo; he is to determine the tendency thereof, and brand it with his own epithets; he is to adjudge the party guilty, and make him author or publiſher as he ſees good; and laſtly, he is to give ſentence by committing the party.—All theſe authorities are given to one ſingle magiſtrate, unaſſiſted by council, evidence, or jury, in a caſe where the law ſays, no action will lie againſt him, becauſe he acts in the capacity of a judge.

From what has been obſerved, it appears to us, that the exception of a ſeditious libel from privilege, is neither founded on uſage or written precedents, and therefore this reſolution is of the firſt impreſſion; nay, it is not only a new law, narrowing the known and ancient rule, but it is likewiſe a law *ex poſt facto, pendente lite, et ex parte*, now firſt declared to meet with the circumſtances of a particular caſe; and it muſt be further conſidered, that this houſe is thus called upon to give a ſanction to the determinations of the other, who have not condeſcended to confer with us upon this point till they had pre-judged it themſelves.

This method of relaxing the rule of privilege, caſe by caſe, is pregnant with this farther inconvenience, that it renders the rule precarious and uncertain. Who can foretel where the houſe will ſtop, when they have by one infringement of their own ſtanding orders, made a precedent, whereon future infringements may, with equal reaſon, be founded? How ſhall the ſubject be able to proceed with ſafety in this perilous buſineſs? How can the judges decide on theſe or the like queſtions, if privilege is no longer to be found in records and journals, and ſtanding orders. Upon any occaſion privilege may be enlarged, and no court will venture, for the future, without trembling, either to recognize or to deny it.

We manifeſtly ſee this effect of excluding by a general reſolution, one bailable offence from privilege to-day, that it will be a precedent for doing ſo by another, upon ſome future occaſion, till, inſtead of privilege holding in every caſe not excepted, it will, at laſt, come to hold in none, but ſuch as are expreſsly ſaved.

When the caſe of the *habeas corpus*

corpus is relied upon, as a precedent to enforce the declaration, the argument only ſhews, that the miſchief aforementioned has taken place already, ſince one alteration, though a very juſt one, not at all applicable to the preſent queſtion, is produced to juſtify another that is unwarrantable.

But it is ſtrongly objected, that if privilege be allowed in this caſe, a lord of parliament might endanger the conſtitution by a continual attack of ſucceſſive libels; and if ſuch a perſon ſhould be ſuffered to eſcape, under the ſhelter of privilege, with perpetual impunity, all government would be overturned, and therefore it is inexpedient to allow the privilege, now when the time of privilege, by prorogations, is continued for ever, without an interval.

This objection ſhall be anſwered in two ways. Firſt, if inexpediency is to deſtroy perſonal privilege in this caſe of a ſeditious libel, it is at leaſt as inexpedient, that other great miſdemeanours ſhould ſtand under the like protection of privilege; neither is it expedient that the ſmaller offences ſhould be exempt from proſecution in the perſon of a lord of parliament; ſo that if this argument of inexpediency is to prevail, it muſt prevail throughout, and ſubvert the whole law of privilege in criminal matters; in which method of reaſoning there is this fault, that the argument proves too much.

If this inconvenience be indeed grievous, the fault is not in the law of privilege, but in the change of times, and in the management of prorogations by the ſervants of the crown, which are ſo contrived, as not to leave an hour open for juſtice. Let the objection nevertheleſs be allowed in its utmoſt extent, and then compare the inexpediency of not immediately proſecuting on one ſide, with the inexpediency of ſtripping the parliament of all protection from privilege, on the other. Unhappy as the option is, the public would rather wiſh to ſee the proſecution for crimes ſuſpended, than the parliament totally unprivileged, although, notwithſtanding this pretended inconvenience is ſo warmly magnified on the preſent occaſion, we are not appriſed that any ſuch inconvenience has been felt, tho' the privilege has been enjoyed time immemorial.

But the ſecond and beſt anſwer, becauſe it removes all pretence of grievances, is this, that this houſe, upon complaint made, has the power (which it will exert in favour of juſtice) to deliver up the offender to proſecution.

It is a diſhonourable and an undeſerved imputation upon the lords, to ſuppoſe, even in argument, that they would nouriſh an impious criminal in their boſoms, againſt the call of offended juſtice, and the demand of their country.

It is true, however, and it is hoped that this houſe will always ſee (as every magiſtrate ought that does not betray his truſt) that their member is properly charged; but when that ground is once laid, they would be aſhamed to protect the offender one moment; ſurely this truſt (which has never yet been abuſed) is not too great to be repoſed in the high court of parliament; while it is lodged there, the

the public juſtice is in ſafe hands, and the privilege untouched; whereas, on the contrary, if for the ſake of coming at the criminal at once, without this application to the houſe, perſonal privilege is taken away, not only the offender, but the whole parliament, at the ſame time, is delivered up to the crown.

It is not to be conceived, that our anceſtors, when they framed the law of privilege, would have left the caſe of a ſeditious libel (as it is called) the only unprivileged miſdemeanour. Whatever elſe they had given up to the crown, they would have guarded the caſe of ſuppoſed libels above all others, with privilege, as being moſt likely to be abuſed by outrageous and vindictive proſecutions.

But this great privilege had a much deeper reach, it was wiſely planned, and hath hitherto, through all times, been reſolutely maintained.

It was not made to ſcreen criminals, but to preſerve the very being and life of parliament; for when our anceſtors conſidered, that the law had lodged the great powers of arreſt, indictment, and information, in the crown, they ſaw the parliament would be undone, if during the time of privilege, the royal proceſs ſhould be admitted in any miſdemeanour whatſoever, therefore they excepted none. Where the abuſe of power would be fatal, the power ought never to be given, becauſe redreſs comes too late.

A parliament under perpetual terror of impriſonment, can neither be free, nor bold, nor honeſt; and if this privilege was once removed, the moſt important queſtion might be irrecoverably loſt, or carried by a ſudden irruption of meſſengers, let looſe againſt the members half an hour before the debate.

Laſtly, as it has already been obſerved, the caſe of ſuppoſed libels is, of all others, the moſt dangerous and alarming to be left open to proſecution during the time of privilege.

If the ſeverity of the law touching libels, as it hath ſometimes been laid down, be duly weighed, it muſt ſtrike both houſes of parliament with terror and diſmay.

The repetition of a libel, the delivery of it unread to another, is ſaid to be a publication; nay, the bare poſſeſſion of it has been deemed criminal, unleſs it is immediately deſtroyed, or carried to a magiſtrate.

Every lord of parliament then, who hath done this, who is falſely accuſed, nay, who is, though without any information, named in the ſecretary of ſtate's warrant, has loſt his privilege by this reſolution, and lies at the mercy of that great enemy to learning and liberty, the meſſenger of the preſs.

For theſe and many other forcible reaſons, we hold it highly unbecoming the dignity, gravity, and wiſdom of the houſe of peers, as well as their juſtice, thus judicially to explain away and diminiſh the privilege of their perſons, founded in the wiſdom of ages, declared with preciſion in our ſtanding orders, ſo repeatedly confirmed, and hitherto preſerved inviolable by the ſpirit of our anceſtors, called to it only by the other houſe, on a particular occaſion, and to ſerve a particular purpoſe, *ex poſt facto*,

facto, ex parte, et pendente lite in the courts below.

Temple,	Abergavenny,
Bolton,	Fred. Litch. Cov.
Grafton,	Aſhburnham,
Cornwallis,	Forteſcue,
Portland,	Grantham,
Briſtol,	Walpole,
Devonſhire,	Ponſonby,
Scarborough,	Folkſtone.
Dacre,	

His majeſty's moſt gracious ſpeech to both houſes of parliament, on Thurſday April 19, 1764.

My lords and gentlemen,

I Cannot put an end to this ſeſſion of parliament without returning you my thanks for the prudent and ſalutary meaſures which you have taken to extend the commerce, and ſecure the happineſs, of my kingdoms.

The aſſurances which I have received of the pacific diſpoſition of the ſeveral powers with whom we were lately at war, and of their reſolution to adhere inviolably to the terms of the late treaty, promiſe the continuance of peace abroad; and the firm and temperate exertion of your authority, joined to the conſtitutional and public-ſpirited conduct which you have manifeſted on every occaſion during the preſent ſeſſion, will, I truſt, eſtabliſh at home due obedience to the laws, reverence to the legiſlature, and domeſtic union.

Gentlemen of the houſe of commons,

I thank you for the ſupplies which you have ſo chearfully and unanimouſly granted. The ample proviſion you have made for the ſeveral ſervices recommended to you, and eſpecially for maintaining my fleet in a reſpectable ſtate, will, I am confident, preſerve to this nation its proper weight and influence, and give ſtrength and ſecurity to all my dominions.

The wiſe regulations which have been eſtabliſhed to augment the public revenues, to unite the intereſts of the moſt diſtant poſſeſſions of my crown, and to encourage and ſecure their commerce with Great Britain, call for my hearty approbation.

Your regard to public credit, in diſcharging a part of the heavy debt contracted and unprovided for during the late war, without impoſing on this kingdom the burthen of any new taxes, is particularly pleaſing to me, from the tender concern which I feel for my people.

My lords and gentlemen,

It is the proper employment of this ſeaſon of tranquillity, to conſider of the moſt effectual means for perfecting thoſe works of peace, and plans of public utility, which have been ſo wiſely and happily begun.

I recommend theſe important objects to your conſideration during the receſs. You may depend upon my conſtant endeavours for the ſucceſs of theſe good purpoſes, as I ſhall ever eſteem it my trueſt glory, to employ that power with which the conſtitution hath entruſted me, in promoting your real intereſts, and laſting happineſs.

Preli-

Preliminary articles of peace, friendſhip and alliance, entered into between the Engliſh and the deputies ſent from the whole Seneca nation, by Sir William Johnſon, bart. his majeſty's ſole agent and ſuperintendant of Indian affairs for the northern parts of North America, and colonel of the Six united nations, their allies and dependents, &c.

Art. I. THAT the Seneca nation do immediately ſtop all hoſtilities, and ſolemnly engage never more to make war upon the Engliſh, or ſuffer any of their people to commit any acts of violence on the perſons or properties of any of his Britannic majeſty's ſubjects.—*The ſachems and chiefs of the Senecas agree fully to this article.*

II. That they forthwith collect all the Engliſh priſoners, deſerters, Frenchmen and negroes, amongſt them, and deliver them up to Sir William Johnſon (together with the two Indians of Kaneſtio, who killed the traders in Nov. 1762, previous to the treaty of peace, which will take place within three months, if theſe articles are agreed to;) and that they engage never to harbour or conceal any deſerters; Frenchmen, or negroes, from this time; but ſhould any ſuch take refuge amongſt them, they are to be brought to the commanding officer of the next garriſon, and delivered up; promiſing likewiſe never to obſtruct any ſearch made after ſuch perſons, or to hinder their being apprehended in any part of their country.—*Agreed to; and they will aſſiſt in apprehending any ſuch in their towns.*

III. That they cede to his majeſty, and his ſucceſſors for ever, in full right, the lands from the fort of Niagara, extending eaſterly along Lake Ontario, about four miles, comprehending the Petit Marais, or landing-place, and running from thence ſoutherly, about 14 miles, to the creek above fort Schloſſer, or little Niagara, and down the ſame, to the river or ſtrait; thence down the river or ſtrait, and acroſs the ſame at the great cataract; thence northerly to the banks of Lake Ontario, at a creek or ſmall lake, about two miles weſt of the fort; thence eaſterly along the banks of Lake Ontario, and acroſs the river or ſtrait to Niagara, comprehending the whole carrying-place, with the lands on both ſides the ſtrait, and containing a tract of about 14 miles in length and four in breadth. And the Senecas do engage never to obſtruct the paſſage of the carrying-place, or the free uſe of any part of the ſaid track, and will likewiſe give free liberty of cutting timber for the uſe of his majeſty, or that of the garriſons, in any other part of their country not comprehended therein.—*Agreed to; provided the track be always appropriated to his majeſty's ſole uſe; and that at the definitive treaty, the lines be run in the preſence of Sir William Johnſon, and ſome of the Senecas, to prevent diſputes hereafter.*

IV. That they allow a free paſſage through their country from that of Cayugas to Niagara, or elſewhere, for the uſe of his majeſty's troops, for ever; engaging never to obſtruct or moleſt any of his majeſty's troops, or other his ſubjects, who may make uſe of the ſame, or who may have occaſion to paſs through any part of their country by land or water, from henceforward.—*Agreed to; and*

moreover (if required) the Senecas will grant eſcorts of their people; but it is expected they will not be ill treated by any of the Engliſh who may paſs through their country.

V. That they grant to his majeſty, and his ſucceſſors for ever, a free uſe of the harbours for veſſels or boats within their country on Lake Ontario, or in any of the rivers, with liberty to land ſtores, &c. and erect ſheds for their ſecurity.—*Agreed to.*

VI. That they immediately ſtop all intercourſe between any of their people and thoſe of the Shawaneſe, and Delawares, or other his majeſty's enemies, whom they are to treat as common enemies, and to aſſiſt his majeſty's arms in bringing them to proper puniſhment; ſolemnly engaging never to be privy to, aid, or aſſiſt any of his majeſty's enemies, or thoſe who may hereafter attempt to diſturb the public tranquillity.—*Agreed to.*

VII. That ſhould any Indian commit murder, or rob any of his majeſty's ſubjects, he ſhall be immediately delivered up to be tried and puniſhed according to the equitable laws of England: And ſhould any white man be guilty of the like crime towards the Indians, he ſhall be immediately tried and puniſhed, if guilty: And the Senecas are never for the future to procure themſelves ſatisfaction, otherwiſe than as before-mentioned, but to lay all matter of complaint before Sir William Johnſon, or his majeſty's ſuperintendant of Indian affairs for the time being, and ſtrictly to maintain and abide by the covenant chain of friendſhip. *Agreed to.*

VIII. For the due performance of theſe articles, the Senecas are to deliver up three of their chiefs as hoſtages, who are to be well treated, and reſtored to them, ſo ſoon as the ſame are fully performed on their parts.—*They agree to leave as hoſtages, Wannughſila, Serrihodna, and Arajungas, three of their chiefs.*

IX. In conſequence of their perfect agreement to the foregoing articles, Sir William Johnſon doth, by virtue of the powers and authorities repoſed in him, in the name of his Britannic majeſty, promiſe and engage, that the ſaid Indians ſhall have a full pardon for paſt tranſgreſſions: That they ſhall be left in the quiet and peaceable poſſeſſion of all their rights not compriſed in the foregoing articles; and that on their duly performing the ſame, and ſubſcribing the definitive treaty of peace, to be held in conſequence hereof, they ſhall be once more admitted into the covenant chain of friendſhip with the Engliſh; and be indulged with a free, fair, and open trade, ſo long as they abide by their engagements.—*This article the Senecas expect will be ſtrictly regarded; and alſo that trade will be carried on in a fair and equitable manner.*

The foregoing articles, after being duly and fully explained to the chiefs and warriors, deputies from the Senecas, they have ſignified their aſſent thereto, by affixing marks of their tribes to theſe preſents.

Given under my hand, at Johnſon-hall the third day of April, 1764.

(Signed)

(Signed) *W. Johnſon.*

Tagaanadie, Sayenqueraghta,
Kaanijes, Wanughſiſſae,
Chonedagaw, Taganoondie,
Aughnawawis, Taanjaqua.

Terms

Terms of peace, granted Auguſt 1764, *by Col. Bradſtreet, to the deputies from the Delawares, Shawaneſe, Hurons of Sanduſky, and other Indians of the countries between Lake Erie and the Ohio, at Preſque Iſle, on his way to their country with a body of forces under his command.*

I. THAT all the priſoners in their hands ſhould be delivered to him at Sanduſky in twenty-five days.

II. That they ſhould renounce all claim to the poſts and forts we now have in their country; and that we ſhall be at liberty to erect as many more as we think neceſſary to ſecure our trade; and that they ſhall cede to us for ever, as much land round each fort as a cannon ſhot can fly over, on which our people may raiſe proviſions.

III. That if any Indian hereafter kill any Engliſhman, he ſhall be delivered up by his nation, and tried by the Engliſh laws, only to have half the jury Indians. And if any one of the nations renew the war, the reſt ſhall join us to bring them to reaſon.

IV. That ſix of the deputies ſhould remain with him as hoſtages, and the other four, with an Engliſh officer, and one of our Indians, ſhould proceed immediately to acquaint thoſe nations with theſe terms of peace, and forward the collecting of the priſoners, to be ready at the day appointed.

[In October following, Colonel Bouquet granted pretty much the ſame terms to another body of the Shawaneſe, Delawares, and other Indians at Tuſcarowas, in the heart of their country, whither he had marched from Canada to bring them to reaſon.]

Subſtance of the treaty between the courts of Peterſburgh and Berlin, ratified the 15*th April,* 1764.

BY articles 1 and 2, a treaty of defenſive alliance, and a mutual guaranty are agreed to, after reſerving the liberty of concluding other treaties not contrary to the preſent.

3—9. In caſe of a foreign attack, 10,000 infantry, and 2000 cavalry are promiſed, three months after the firſt requiſition, to be continued till a ceſſation of hoſtilities. If theſe are not ſufficient, means to be concerted to employ additional force. The troops to be paid and furniſhed with ammunition by the party aſſiſting: Proviſions and quarters to be furniſhed by the aſſiſted. The troops to receive orders from their own general; and to have their own religion and laws.

10. No peace, &c. to be concluded without mutual conſent.

11. In caſe of war on the part of the aſſiſting party, it ſhall be exempted from furniſhing its quota, or ſhall be at liberty to withdraw its forces, after two months notice.

12. A free commerce between the two ſtates.

13. 14. The treaty to be in force eight years, and renewable before the expiration, according to circumſtances. Ratifications to be exchanged in ſix weeks.

By a ſecret article it is engaged to maintain Poland in its right of a free election, and to prevent all hereditary ſucceſſion.

Memorial of the Porte, delivered in March 1764 to the foreign miniſters at that court, in relation to the future election of a king of Poland.

AMICABLE MEMORIAL.

NOtice has been lately given to the ambaſſadors our friends, that it was the intention of the ſublime Porte, that the ancient liberties of the court of Poland ſhould not be encroached upon by foreign courts; that the king of Poland, who is to be ſet up, ſhould be elected and eſtabliſhed in the perſon of a native, as by the concurrence of the republic of Poland; and that no foreigner ſhould be made king. Yet advices received from divers places import, that there is room to think, that diſturbances are raiſed in Poland in order to get a perſon ſet by force on the Poliſh throne, who is ſupported by certain powers. Though we are not quite perſuaded of the reality of theſe advices, a memorial has been delivered to each of the miniſters of Ruſſia, Germany, and Pruſſia, importing, that as the ſublime Porte takes it to be honourable to maintain and ſupport the ancient liberties of the Poles; and as the ſame ſublime Porte does not cramp the election that ought to be made of a king in the perſon of a native of the country; the ſublime Porte therefore deſires, that the other powers will likewiſe do honour to the liberties of the Poles, and that they will not oppoſe the election of a king in the perſon of ſuch Piaſt (native) as the Poles may judge eligible. In conſequence, this notice is given to the ambaſſadors our friends.

Proteſt againſt the Poliſh dyet aſſembled for the election of a king, drawn up and ſigned the 7th May 1764 by twenty ſenators; to which proteſt forty-five nuncios afterwards ſigned an act of adherence.

1. THE dyet cannot be held in preſence of the foreign troops that ſurround the city.

2. The ſenators did not engage the Ruſſians to come; they gave no thanks for their being ſent, and have not any way given occaſion for their arrival.

3. The Ruſſians have committed an act of violence in Lithuania, by favouring a pernicious confederacy made for diſturbing the public tranquillity.

4. It is againſt all juſtice, that in the memorial of the Ruſſian miniſters, delivered to the primate the 4th inſtant, the troops of the crown are accuſed of having meddled in the dyetines and other public acts.

5. It is by the unjuſt proceedings of the ſame foreign troops, that the general dyetine of Pruſſia has proved abortive; and this is another motive for proteſting againſt this dyet.

6. All good patriots, who love juſtice, are invited to unite for the ſupport of liberty.

At the end of this manifeſto there is an adheſion to the proteſts of the ſenators, ſigned by forty-five nuncios.

A diſ-

A diſcourſe addreſſed by his Poliſh majeſty to the prince primate and the marſhal of the dyet, in the cathedral of Warſaw, when he received the diploma of his election, and took the oath uſual on that occaſion.

IT was not my deſign to ſpeak in public at this time; but, in preſenting me with the diploma of my election, that ſolemn token of the nation's love, you, Mr. marechal, have exhorted the ſovereign to ſpeak to his people. Theſe words of your diſcourſe oblige me to ſpeak, and to diſcover the feelings that paſſed within me, when the moment approached of taking the oath, by which I have now bound myſelf in your preſence. Nay, I am even rejoiced that I have now an occaſion of ſhewing you, Mr. marechal, together with the ſenators and ſtates of the republic, my real ſentiments, that thus ye may judge whether my views, principles and actions, will in any wiſe tend to ſatisfy your deſires, and to accompliſh your hopes.

When, by united acclamations, the reſpectable citizens of this vaſt kingdom deigned to confer upon their equal the dignity of monarch, I bowed my head with the moſt profound reſpect in receiving this precious mark of the favour, liberty, ananimity of this great people.

After my election, the impulſe of gratitude led me to the ſanctuary to pay my homage to the King of kings, becauſe it is there that he is more peculiarly pleaſed with the tribute of mortals. And, now that I am again called to the ſame ſanctuary, it appeared to me, while I was approaching to it, that I was called before the throne of him who governs the univerſe, and preſides over the courſe of the revolving ages. At this thought I was filled with awe; my veins alſo trembled when I was obliged to pronounce that irrevocable engagement, in conſequence of which the honour and proſperity of the Poliſh nation, and the ſafety and happineſs of the individuals that compoſe it, are committed to the truſt of one man; and I feel ſo much the more the weight of this important truſt, in that I have long ſhared with you the calamities that flow from that want of order, union, and vigour, that has clouded the luſtre of this once glorious and flouriſhing kingdom. I acknowledge, that in that ſolemn moment, a diſcouraging view of the obligations I was going to contract, and a conſciouſneſs of my own inſufficiency and weakneſs, made the deepeſt impreſſion upon me; I was ſeized with a ſort of terror; my voice loſt its uſual tone, my tongue faultered, and the words of the regal oath, though dear to my heart, which acquieſces in them perfectly, could not find an utterance; but when I turned my eyes to you, Mr. Primate, when I heard you repeat the words of the oath, I could not behold you in any other light, than as the miniſter of the moſt High, and therefore thought it my duty to ſubmit to your guidance. Since the clamours of diſcord and party-hatred have been reduced to ſilence by your venerable preſence: ſince a multitude of tongues, which ſpoke each a different language, have become all

of a ſudden, as it were by a miracle, the unanimous echoes of your's, you muſt certainly be filled with the Holy Spirit, that Spirit of power, wiſdom, and truth. Hitherto you have been my guide.—Be ſtill my kind aſſiſtant and counſellor. Continue to cheriſh and keep alive the zeal and attachment of thoſe loyal hearts, which your goodneſs and humanity gained over to my cauſe. Let your wiſdom and reſolution concur with my beſt endeavours to hold with dignity, and manage with prudence, the helm of government, at which you have been charged by the nation to place me. As the marſhal of the dyet has been joined with you in this commiſſion, both inclination and duty oblige me to addreſs myſelf to him alſo on this occaſion.

You deſire me to ſpeak, Sir, and it is with the utmoſt pleaſure that I comply with this deſire. I thereby have an opportunity of declaring that I love and honour your perſon, your virtues, and your talents. This declaration is not the effect of that warm gratitude that impels me to ſpeak to you at this time, it is the effect of a long obſervation of thoſe qualities, which have produced one fruit—and may that fruit always prove agreeable to our dear country. You, Sir, are called to appear before the throne, as the repreſentative of that ſpirited and reſpectable nobility, which commands me to govern the republic according to the laws; and it is natural, that I ſhould be deſirous of employing the good offices of one whoſe perſon is ſo agreeable, and whoſe teſtimony is ſo weighty, as yours, to aſſure that nobility of the ſincerity of my reſolutions and intentions with reſpect to that important object. Tell that nobility that it is my fixed purpoſe to employ the remainder of my days, and all the means and opportunities that it ſhall pleaſe the divine Providence to place within the extent of my power, in anſwering the expectations of my dear countrymen. But at the ſame time exhort them, conjure them to lend their zealous ſuccours to a ſovereign, who has their happineſs and proſperity deeply at heart, and who will never aim at any other object than the public good. Where is the perſon, that does not ſee, and alſo feel the diſorders and calamities under which the nation labours? A diſmal experience points out too plainly the pernicious ſource from whence theſe calamities flow. Self-intereſt and envy have produced diſcord, and thus thrown all things into confuſion. A ſpirit of faction has perplexed our councils, and thus rendered impotent the natural inſtruments of our ſafety and of our glory; and thoſe treaſures, that ought to have been employed in maintaining the vigour and ſplendor of this republic, are become the prey of that fatal luxury, whoſe pernicious effects increaſe from day to day. Let our union then heal thoſe calamities, which all other means will be inſufficient to remove! You know by experience, that a few tools of faction can deſtroy with more facility than the majority can build. Let emulation, that uſeful virtue, that ſeems to border upon envy, from which nevertheleſs it differs extremely, animate our efforts. Let us all run the noble race of patriotiſm, and endeavour to ſurpaſs one another, in aiming at true merit,

merit, and propoſing to ourſelves no other glory, but that which is acquired by ſerving our country. But to what will amount the deſires and the projects of feeble mortals, if they are not ſeconded by him, whoſe word commands nations and empires to riſe or fall? Great God! whoſe hand has raiſed me to the high ſtation I now fill, thou doeſt nothing in vain. Thou haſt given me the crown, and thou haſt given me, with it, an ardent deſire to reſtore this kingdom to its former proſperity and grandeur. Finiſh, therefore, thy own work! Let my prayer ariſe to the throne of thee by whom kings reign! Inſpire the hearts of this people with that zeal for the public, that fills mine!

Manifeſto publiſhed by the court of Peterſburgh, on occaſion of the death of prince Ivan.

CATHARINE the ſecond, by the grace of God, empreſs and ſovereign of all Ruſſia, &c. &c. to all whom theſe preſents may concern:

When, by the divine will, and in compliance with the ardent and unanimous deſires of our faithful ſubjects, we aſcended the throne of Ruſſia, we were not ignorant that Ivan, ſon of Anthony, prince of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttle and the princeſs Anne of Mecklenburg, was ſtill alive. This prince, as is well known, was immediately after his birth unlawfully declared heir to the imperial crown of Ruſſia; but, by the decrees of Providence, he was ſoon after irrevocably excluded from that high dignity, and the ſcepter placed in the hands of the lawful heireſs, Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the great, our beloved aunt of glorious memory. After we had aſcended the throne, and offered up to heaven our juſt thankſgivings, the firſt object that employed our thoughts, in conſequence of that humanity that is natural to us, was the unhappy ſituation of that prince, who was dethroned by the divine Providence, and had been unfortunate ever ſince his birth, and we formed the reſolution of alleviating his misfortunes, as far as was poſſible. We immediately made a viſit to him, in order to judge of his underſtanding and talents, and, in conſequence thereof, to procure him an agreeable and quiet ſituation, ſuitable to his character and the education he had received; but how great was our ſurpriſe! when, beſides a defect in his utterance that was uneaſy to himſelf, and rendered his diſcourſe almoſt unintelligible to others, we obſerved in him a total privation of ſenſe and reaſon. Thoſe who accompanied us during this interview, ſaw how much our heart ſuffered at the view of an object ſo proper to excite compaſſion; they were alſo convinced that the only meaſure we could take to ſuccour the unfortunate prince, was to leave him where we found him, and to procure him all the comforts and conveniencies that his ſituation would admit of. We accordingly gave our orders for this purpoſe, though the ſtate he was in prevented his perceiving the marks of our humanity, or being ſenſible of our attention and care; for he knew nobody, could not diſtinguiſh between good and

and evil, nor did he know the uſe that might be made of reading, to paſs the time with leſs wearineſs and diſguſt; on the contrary, he ſought after pleaſure in objects that diſcovered, with ſufficient evidence, the diſorder of his imagination.

To prevent, therefore, ill-intentioned perſons from giving him any trouble, or from making uſe of his name or orders to diſturb the public tranquillity, we gave him a guard, and placed about his perſon two officers of the garriſon, in whoſe fidelity and integrity we could confide. Theſe officers were captain Wlaſſeiff and lieutenant Tſchekin, who, by their long military ſervices, which had conſiderably impaired their health, deſerved a ſuitable recompence, and a ſtation in which they might paſs quietly the reſt of their days; they were accordingly charged with the care of the prince, and were ſtrictly enjoined to let none approach him. Yet all theſe precautions were not ſufficient to prevent an abandoned profligate from committing at Schluſſelburg, with unparallelled wickedneſs, and at the risk of his own life, an outrage, whoſe enormity inſpires horror. A ſecond lieutenant of the regiment of Smolenſko, a native of the Ukraine, named Baſil Mirowitz, grandſon of the firſt rebel that followed Mazeppa, and a man in whom the perjury of his anceſtors ſeems to have been infuſed with their blood; this profligate, having paſſed his days in debauchery and diſſipation, and being thus deprived of all honourable means of advancing his fortune; having alſo loſt ſight of what he owed to the law of God and of the oath of allegiance he had taken to us, and knowing prince Ivan only by name, without any knowledge either of his bodily or mental qualities, took it into his head to make uſe of this prince to advance his fortune at all events, without being reſtrained by a conſideration of the bloody ſcene that ſuch an attempt was adapted to occaſion. In order to execute this deteſtable, dangerous, and deſperate project, he deſired, during our abſence in Livonia, to be upon guard, out of his turn, in the fortreſs of Schluſſelburg, where the guard is relieved every eight days; and the 15th of laſt month, about two o'clock in the morning, he, all of a ſudden, called up the main guard, formed it into a line, and ordered the ſoldiers to load with ball. Berenikoff, governor of the fortreſs, having heard a noiſe, came out of his apartment, and asked Mirowitz the reaſon of this diſturbance, but received no other anſwer from this rebel than a blow on the head with the butt-end of his musket. Mirowitz having wounded and arreſted the governor, led on his troop with fury, and attacked, with firearms, the handful of ſoldiers that guarded prince Ivan. But he was ſo warmly received by thoſe ſoldiers under the command of the two officers mentioned above, that he was obliged to retire. By a particular direction of that Providence that watches over the life of man, there was that night a thick miſt, which, together with the inward form and ſituation of the fortreſs, had this happy effect, that not one individual was either killed or wounded. The bad ſucceſs of this firſt attempt could not engage this enemy

enemy of the public peace to desist from his rebellious purpose. Driven on by rage and despair, he ordered a piece of cannon to be brought from one of the bastions, which order was immediately executed. Captain Wlasseiff, and his lieutenant Tschekin, seeing that it was impossible to resist such a superior force, and considering the unhappy consequences that must ensue from the deliverance of a person that was committed to their care, and the effusion of innocent blood that must follow from the tumults it was adapted to excite, took, after deliberating together, the only step that they thought proper to maintain the public tranquillity; which was to cut short the days of the unfortunate prince. Considering also, that if they set at liberty a prisoner, whom this desperate party endeavoured to force with such violence out of their hands, they ran the risk of being punished according to the rigour of the laws, they assassinated the prince, without being restrained by the apprehension of being put to death by a villain reduced to despair. The monster (Mirowitz) seeing the dead body of the prince, was so confounded and struck at a sight he so little expected, that he acknowledged, that very instant, his temerity and his guilt, and discovered his repentance to the troop, which about an hour before he had seduced from their duty, and rendered the accomplices of his crime.

Then it was, that the two officers, who had nipt this rebellion in the bud, joined with the governor of the fortress in securing the person of this rebel, and in bringing back the soldiers to their duty. They also sent to our privy counsellor Panin, under whose orders they acted, a relation of this event, which, though unhappy, has nevertheless, under the protection of Heaven, been the occasion of preventing still greater calamities. This senator dispatched immediately lieutenant colonel Caschkin, with sufficient instructions to maintain the public tranquillity, to prevent disorder on the spot (i. e. where the assassination was committed) and sent us, at the same time, a courier with a circumstantial account of the whole affair. In consequence of this, we ordered lieutenant general Weymarn, of the division of St. Petersburgh, to take the necessary informations upon the spot; this he has done, and has sent us, accordingly, the interrogatories, depositions, and the confession of the villain himself, who has acknowledged his crime.

Sensible of the enormity of his crime, and of its consequences with regard to the peace of our country, we have referred the whole affair to the consideration of our senate, which we have ordered, jointly with the synod, to invite the three first classes, and the presidents of all the colleges, to hear the verbal relation of general Weymarn, who has taken the proper informations, to pronounce sentence in consequence thereof, and after that sentence has been signed, to present it to us for our confirmation of the same.

The original is signed by her imperial majesty's own hand.

CATHARINE.

Papers

Papers relative to Eaſt India affairs.

Copy of the Phirmaun.

TO all governors, officers, and managers of our affairs, jagheerdars, fougedars, karnries, rahdars, guzerbauns, and zemindars of the preſent and time to come, in the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, port of Hougly, and other ports of the aforeſaid provinces, who hope for our royal favour.

Be it known unto you all, that in theſe days of our triumphant reign, Mr. John Surman and Kauja Sirhud, agents on the part of the Engliſh company, have preferred a petition, in our juſt and equitable preſence, to the following purpoſe; that, in conſequence of a decree of his moſt ſacred majeſty Shah—deceaſed, and former grants, the Engliſh company are exempted from cuſtoms in all parts of our dominions, except the port of Surat, and pay annually, into our royal treaſury, at the port of Hougly, three thouſand rupees, as a tribute, in lieu of cuſtoms; and they hope that, according to former grants, our royal phirmaun will be vouchſafed to them.

Our abſolute and high command is paſſed, that you well knowing, that whatever goods and merchandize their agents may bring into or carry out from the ports, borders and quarters of theſe provinces, either by land or water, are exempt from duties, ſhall leave them to buy and ſell at their own free liberty, ſhall annually receive the eſtabliſhed tribute of three thouſand rupees, and on no other account whatever impede or interrupt them. Moreover,

If any where any of their effects ſhall be made away with, you are to uſe all diligence in the recovery thereof, and ſhall puniſh the thieves, and deliver over the goods to the proper owner. Further, whereſoever they may ſet up a factory, and buy and ſell goods and merchandize, you are to afford them help and ſupport in their juſt concerns, and with juſtice and fairneſs cauſe to be repaid unto their agents, whatever juſt demand they may have upon any merchant, weaver, or other perſon, and you are to allow no one to moleſt their agents, nor ſhall you ſtop for cuſtoms, &c. boats hired by them, or of their own property.

Treaty executed by Meer Jaffier.

I. WHatever articles were agreed upon in the time of peace with the Nabob Serajah Doula, I agree to comply with.

II. The enemies of the Engliſh are my enemies, whether they be Indians or Europeans.

III. All the effects and factories, belonging to the French in the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Oriſſa, ſhall remain in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, nor will I ever allow them any more to ſettle in the three provinces.

IV. In conſideration of the loſſes, which the Engliſh company have ſuſtained by the plunder and capture of Calcutta by the Nabob, and the charges occaſioned by the maintenance of their officers, I will give them a crore of rupees.

V. For the effects plundered from

from the Engliſh inhabitants of Calcutta, I agree to give fifty lack of rupees.

VI. For the effects plundered from the Gentoos, Muſſelmen, and other ſubjects of Calcutta, twenty lack of rupees ſhall be given.

VII. For the effects plundered from the Armenian inhabitants of Calcutta, I will give the ſum of ſeven lack of rupees. The diſtribution of the ſums allotted the natives, Engliſh inhabitants, Gentoos, and Muſſelmen, ſhall be left to the admiral, and colonel Clive, and the reſt of the council, to be diſpoſed of by them to whom they think proper.

VIII. Within the ditch, which ſurrounds the borders of Calcutta, are tracts of land belonging to ſeveral zemindars, beſides this, I will grant the Engliſh company ſix hundred yards without the ditch.

IX. All the land lying to the ſouth of Calcutta, as far as Culpee, ſhall be under the zemindaree of the Engliſh company, and all the officers of thoſe parts ſhall be under their juriſdiction, the revenues to be paid by them (the company) in the ſame manner with other zeminders.

X. Whenever I demand the Engliſh aſſiſtance, I will be at the charge of the maintenance of their troops.

XI. I will not erect any new fortifications below Hougly near the river Ganges.

XII. As ſoon as I am eſtabliſhed in the government of the three provinces, the aforeſaid ſums ſhall be faithfully paid.

Dated 15 Ramazan, in the fourth year of the king's reign.

Treaty concluded between Mr. Van Sittart, and the gentlemen of the ſelect committee, and the Nabob Meer Mahomed Coſſim Cawn.

I. THE Nabob Meer Mahomed Jaffier Cawn ſhall continue in poſſeſſion of his dignities, and all affairs be tranſacted in his name, and a ſuitable income ſhall be allowed for his expences.

II. The neabut of the ſoubadaree of Bengal, Azimabad, and Oriſſa, &c. ſhall be conferred by his excellency the Nabob on Meer Mahomed Coſſim Cawn. He ſhall be inveſted with the adminiſtration of all the affairs of the provinces, and after his excellency he ſhall ſucceed to the government.

III. Betwixt us and Meer Mahomed Coſſim Cawn, a firm friendſhip and union is eſtabliſhed. His enemies are our enemies, and his friends are our friends.

IV. The Europeans and the Seapoys of the Engliſh army ſhall be ready to aſſiſt the Nabob Meer Mahomed Coſſim Cawn in the management of all affairs, and in all affairs dependent on him they ſhall exert themſelves to the utmoſt of their abilities.

V. For all charges of the company, and of the ſaid army, and proviſions for the field, &c. the lands of Burdwan, Midnapoor and Chittagong ſhall be aſſigned, and ſunnuds for that purpoſe ſhall be written and granted. The company is to ſtand to all loſſes, and receive all the profits of theſe three countries; and we will demand no more than the three aſſignments aforeſaid.

VI. One half of the chunam produced at Sillet for three years ſhall

ſhall be purchaſed by the gomaſtahs of the company, from the people of the government, at the cuſtomary rate of that place. The tenants and inhabitants of that place ſhall receive no injury.

VII. The ballance of the former tuncaws ſhall be paid according to the kiſtbundee agreed upon with the Royroyan. The jewels which have been pledged ſhall be received back again.

VIII. We will not allow the tenants of the Sircar to ſettle in the lands of the Engliſh company, neither ſhall the tenants of the company be allowed to ſettle in the lands of the Sircar.

IX. We will give no protection to the dependents of the Sircar, in the lands or the factories of the company, neither ſhall any protection be given to the dependents of the company in the lands of the Sircar, and whoever ſhall fly to either party for refuge ſhall be given up.

X. The meaſures for war or peace with the Shahzada, and raiſing ſupplies of money, and the concluding both theſe points, ſhall be weighed in the ſcale of reaſon, and whatever is judged expedient ſhall be put in execution; and it ſhall be ſo contrived, by our joint counſels, that he be removed from this country, nor ſuffered to get any footing in it. Whether there be peace with the Shahzada or not, our agreement with Meer Mahomed Coſſim Cawn, we will, by the grace of God, inviolably obſerve, as long as the Engliſh company's factories continue in this country. Dated the 17th day of the month of Suffur, in the year 1174 of the Hegyra.

Treaty and agreement concluded between the governor and council of Fort William, on the part of the Engliſh Eaſt India company, and the Nabob, Shuja-ul-moolk Heſſâm-ul-dowla Meer Mahomed Jaffier Aly Cawn Bahadre Mohabut Jung.

On the part of the company.

WE engage to reinſtate the Nabob, Shuja-ul-moolk Heſſâm-ul-dowla Meer Mahomed Jaffier Aly Cawn Bahadre Mohabut Jung, in the ſubadarrey of the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, by the depoſal of Meer Mahomed Coſſim Aly Cawn, and the effects, treaſure, and jewels, &c. which ſhall fall into our hands, ſhall be delivered up to the Nabob aforeſaid.

On the part of the Nabob.

1ſt, The treaty which I formerly concluded with the company, upon my acceſſion to the nizamut, engaging to regard the honour and reputation of the company, the governor and council as my own, granting perwannahs for the currency of the company's trade; the ſame treaty I now confirm and ratify.

2dly, I do grant and confirm to the company, for defraying the expences of their troops, the chuchlehs of Burdwan, Midnapoor, and Chittagong, which were before ceded for the ſame purpoſe.

3dly, I do ratify and confirm to the Engliſh the privileges granted them by their firmaund, and ſeveral huſbullhookums, of carrying on their trade, by means of their own duſtucks, free from all duties, taxes, and impoſitions, in all parts of

of the country, excepting the article of ſalt, on which a duty of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is to be levied on the rewana or houghly market-price.

4thly, I give to the company half the ſalt-petre which is produced in the country of Purnea, which their gomaſtahs ſhall ſend to Calcutta; the other half ſhall be collected by my phouſdar, for the uſe of my officers; and I will ſuffer no other perſons to make purchaſes of this article in that country.

5thly, In the chuchleh of Silet, for the ſpace of five years, commencing with the Bengal year 1170, my phouſdar and the company's gomaſtah ſhall jointly prepare chunam, of which each ſhall defray half the expences; and half the chunam ſo made ſhall be given to the company, and the other half ſhall be for my uſe.

6thly, I will maintain twelve thouſand horſe, and twelve thouſand foot, in the three provinces; if there ſhould be occaſion for more, the number ſhall be increaſed by the conſent of the governor and council, proportionably to the emergency; beſides theſe, the forces of the Engliſh company ſhall always attend me when they are wanted.

7thly, Wherever I ſhall fix my court, either at Morſhedabad, or elſewhere, I will adviſe the governor and council; and whatever number of Engliſh forces I may have occaſion for in the management of my affairs, I will demand them, and they ſhall be allowed me. And an Engliſh gentleman ſhall reſide with me, to tranſact all affairs between me and the company; and a perſon ſhall alſo reſide on my part at Calcutta, to negotiate with the governor and council.

8thly, The late perwannahs iſſued by Coſſim Aly Cawn, granting to all merchants the exemption of all duties for the ſpace of two years, ſhall be reverſed, and called in, and the duties collected as before.

9thly, I will cauſe the rupees coined in Calcutta to paſs reſpect equal to the ficcas of Morſhedabad, without any deduction of batta; and whoever ſhall demand batta ſhall be puniſhed.

10thly, I will give thirty lack of rupees to defray all the expences and loſs accruing to the company from the war and ſtoppage of their inveſtment. And I will reimburſe to all private perſons the amount of ſuch loſſes, (proved before the governor and council) as they may ſuſtain in their trade in the country. If I ſhall not be able to diſcharge this in ready money, I will give aſſignments of land for the amount.

11thly, I will confirm and renew the treaty which I formerly made with the Dutch.

12thly, If the French come into the country, I will not allow them to erect any fortifications, maintain forces, or hold lands, zemindaries, &c. but they ſhall pay tribute, and carry on their trade as in former times.

13thly, Some regulations ſhall be hereafter ſettled between us, for deciding all diſputes which may ariſe between the Engliſh agents and gomaſtahs, in the different parts of the country, and my officers.

In teſtimony whereof, we the ſaid governor and council have ſet our hands, and affixed the ſeal of the company to one part hereof; and

and the Nabob aforenamed hath ſet his hand and ſeal to another part hereof; which was mutually done, and interchanged at Fort William the 10th day of July 1763.

Explanation of Perſian and Mooriſh terms made uſe of in the foregoing treaties.

Batta, an extraordinary allowance to the army when abroad in the field, or in any country garriſon where proviſions are ſcarce.

Chuchleh, the juriſdiction of a phouſdar, who receives the rents from the zemindars.

Chunam, or Chinam, lime.

Duſtuck, an order.

Crore of rupees, an hundred lack.

Firmaun, or Phirmaund, a patent or paper ſigned by the Mogul; a royal mandate or grant.

Gomaſtah, factor or agent.

Huſbulhookum, a patent ſigned by the vizier.

Kiſtbundee, a contract for the acquittance of a debt by ſtated payments.

Lack of rupees, about twelve thouſand five hundred pound.

Nabob, a governor of a province, the king's vicegerent.

Neabut, deputyſhip.

Nizamut, government.

Perwannah, an order or command, ſometimes a grant.

Phouſdar, a renter.

Rewana, or Ruanna, ſtatement, adjuſtment or rule.

Shahzada, royally born. King's eldeſt ſon.

Siccas, pieces of pureſt gold.

Soubadaree, viceroyalty of one or two great provinces.

Sunnud, charter, grant, patent.

Tuncaws, aſſignments upon lands.

Zemindarees, freeholds.

CHARACTERS.

An account of the inhabitants of Camchatca, and of the country itself; from a work lately published by authority at Peterſburg.

THOUGH the country called Camchatca was long known to the geographers of former times, yet ſo little were they acquainted with its ſituation, that they believed it to be joined to Yeſſo; and this opinion was looked upon in thoſe days as a very probable conjecture: but it has been ſince found that between the two countries there is a large ſea, interſperſed with many iſlands. The Ruſſians could form their maps of Camchatca only from conjecture, till it was brought under their ſubjection; and then they could not immediately procure any accurate or ſatisfactory knowledge of the country, for want of perſons properly qualified to make the neceſſary inquiries.

Two late expeditions have greatly contributed to complete the geography of theſe parts; particularly the laſt, in which the ſea officers delineated exactly all the eaſtern coaſt of Camchatca, as far as the Cape of Chukotſkoi all the weſtern to the Penchinſka, gulph, and from Ochotſkoy to the river Amur: they deſcribed the iſlands lying between Japan and Camchatca, and alſo thoſe which are between Camchatca and America. At the ſame time the gentlemen of the academy undertook to determine the ſituation of Camchatca by aſtronomical obſervations, and to remark every thing worthy of notice in the civil and natural hiſtory of the country and places adjacent.

That great peninſula, which makes the boundary of Aſia to the north-eaſt, and ſtretches itſelf from north to ſouth about 7 deg. 30 min. is called Camchatca. The beginning of this peninſula is at the rivers Puſtaia and Anapho, lying in 59 deg. 30 min. north latitude. The firſt runs into the Penchinſka ſea, and the other to the eaſtward. At theſe places the iſthmus is ſo narrow, that the ſea may in fair weather be ſeen on both ſides from the hills in the middle. As the country runs broader towards the north, this place may be reckoned the iſthmus that joins the peninſula to the main land. The government of Camchatca extends no farther than to this place; and all the country north of this boundary is called Zenoſſe, and is under the government of Anadir.

The ſouthern part of this peninſula, which is called Lopatka, lies in 51 deg. 3 min. north latitude. The difference of longitude from Peterſburg is by the beſt obſervations found to be at Ochotſkoy 112 deg. 53 min. eaſt, and thence to Bolſcheretſkoi or the Great River 14 deg. 6 min. eaſt. The figure of the peninſula

of Camchatca is ſomewhat elliptical, being broader towards the middle, and growing narrower towards both ends.

Camchatca is plentifully furniſhed with rivers; however, they are ſo little that none of them are navigable by the ſmalleſt veſſels, except the river Camchatca, which will carry ſmall veſſels 200 verſts upwards from its mouth. Into this river, it is reported, that ſome Ruſſians were brought by ſea, long before its ſubjection to Ruſſia.

Upon the banks of the river Camchatca is found plenty of roots and berries, which, in ſome meaſure, ſupply the want of corn. There is alſo wood ſufficient not only for building houſes but even for ſhip-building; and, near the head of this river, both ſummer and winter, corn would grow as well as in any other places in the ſame latitude, the ſoil being deep and rich; for, though ſnow falls in very great quantities, yet it thaws early enough, and the ſpring is not ſo rainy, nor have they ſuch damps there, as in many other places. Several trials of ſummer-corn have been actually made in the neighbourhood of both the upper and lower Oſtrog or palliſadoed town of Camchatca; in which both barley and oats have ſucceeded. At the monaſtery of our Lord of Jakutſki, they have ſeveral years paſt ſown about a barrel of the firſt kind of grain, which yielded a crop not only ſufficient for groats and meal for their own uſe, but even enough to ſupply their neighbours. It cannot be expected they ſhould ſow much larger quantities, as, for want of horſes, they are obliged to plough their land with men.

As to garden-ſtuff, the moſt ſucculent plants produce only leaves and ſtalks; cabbage and lettuce never come to perfection, and peas continue in bloſſom till late in the harveſt, without yielding ſo much as a pod; but ſucculent roots, ſuch as turnips and radiſhes thrive well. The graſs runs up near ſix feet high, eſpecially near the rivers and lakes, and, beſides, grows ſo faſt, that it is ſometimes mowed thrice in a ſummer; the cattle therefore are large and fat, and give plenty of milk all the year, for the graſs continues full of juice, even to the beginning of winter, and this juice being condenſed by the cold, prevents the graſs from turning hard during that ſeaſon, ſo that the cattle find food in the fields all the winter. The places where the graſs thus grows are never ſo much covered with ſnow, as the bogs and ſwamps, and, for this reaſon, it is difficult to travel over them in winter. But we ſhall wave at preſent any further account of the ſoil of this country, or other parts of its natural hiſtory, to proceed directly to the hiſtory of the natives, and their cuſtoms and manners.

The natives of Camchatca are as wild as the country itſelf. Some of them have no fixed habitations, but wander from place to place, with their herds of reindeer; others have ſettled habitations, and reſide upon the banks of the rivers, and the ſhore of the Penſchinſka ſea, living upon fiſh and ſea animals, and ſuch herbs

herbs as grow upon the ſhore: The former dwell in huts, covered with deer-ſkins; the latter in places dug out of the earth; both in a very barbarous manner. Their diſpoſitions and tempers are rough; and they are entirely ignorant of letters or religion.

The natives are divided into three different people, namely, the Camchatcans, Koreki, and Kuriles. The Camchatcans live upon the ſouth ſide of the promontory of Camchatca: the Koreki inhabit the northern parts, on the coaſt of the Penchinſka ſea, and round the eaſtern ocean, almoſt to Anadir: the Kuriles inhabit the iſlands in that ſea, reaching as far as thoſe of Japan.

The Camchatcans have this particular cuſtom, that they endeavour to give every thing a name in their language, which may expreſs the property of it; but, if they don't underſtand the thing quite well themſelves, then they take a name from ſome foreign language, which perhaps has no relation to the thing itſelf: as, for example, they call a prieſt Bogbog, becauſe probably they hear him uſe the word Bogbog, God; bread they call Brightatin Augſh, that is, Ruſſian root; and thus of ſeveral other words to which their language is a ſtranger.

It appears likely, that the Camchatcans lived formerly in Mungalia beyond the river Amur, and made one people with the Mungals, which is farther confirmed by the following obſervations, ſuch as the Camchatcans having ſeveral words common to the Mungal Chineſe language, as their terminations in ong, ing, oang, chin, cha, ching, kſi, kſung; it would be ſtill a greater proof, if we could ſhew ſeveral words and ſentences the ſame in both languages. But, not to inſiſt only upon the language, the Camchatcans and Mungals are both of a ſmall ſtature, are ſwarthy, have black hair, a broad face, a ſharp noſe, with the eyes falling in, eyebrows ſmall and thin, a hanging belly, ſlender legs and arms; they are both remarkable for cowardice, boaſting, and ſlaviſhneſs to people who uſe them hard, and for their obſtinacy and contempt of thoſe who treat them with gentleneſs.

Although in outward appearance they reſemble the other inhabitants of Siberia, yet the Camchatcans differ in this, that their faces are not ſo long as the other Siberians, their cheeks ſtand more out, their teeth are thick, their mouth large, their ſtature middling, and their ſhoulders broad, particularly thoſe people who inhabit the ſea-coaſt.

Before the Ruſſian conqueſt, they lived in perfect freedom, having no chief, being ſubject to no law, nor paying any taxes; the old men, or thoſe who were remarkable for their bravery, bearing the principal authority in their villages, though none had any right to command or inflict puniſhment.

Their manner of living is ſlovenly to the laſt degree; they never waſh their hands nor face, nor cut their nails; they eat out of the ſame diſh with the dogs, which they never waſh; they never comb their heads, but, both men and women plait their hair in two locks, binding the ends with ſmall ropes. When any hair

ſtarts out, they ſew it with threads to make it lie cloſe; by this means, they have ſuch a quantity of lice, that they can ſcrape them off by handfuls, and they are naſty enough even to eat them. Thoſe that have not natural hair ſufficient wear falſe locks, ſometimes as much as weigh ten pounds, which makes their heads look like a haycock.

They place their chief happineſs in idleneſs, and ſatisfying their natural luſts and appetites; which incline them to ſinging, dancing, and relating of love ſtories; and think it more eligible to die, than to lead a diſagreeable life, which opinion frequently leads them to ſelf-murder. This was ſo common, after the conqueſt, that the Ruſſians had great difficulty to put a ſtop to it. They have no notion of riches, fame, or honour; therefore covetouſneſs, ambition, and pride are unknown among them. On the other hand, they are careleſs, luſtful, and cruel: theſe vices occaſion frequent quarrels and wars among them, ſometimes with their neighbours, not from a deſire of increaſing their power, but from ſome other cauſes; ſuch as the carrying off their proviſions, or rather their girls, which is frequently practiſed as the moſt ſummary method of procuring a wife.

Their trade is almoſt entirely confined to procuring the immediate neceſſaries and conveniencies of life. They ſell the Koreki ſables, fox and white dog ſkins, dried muſhrooms, and the like, in exchange for cloaths made of deer-ſkins and other hides. Their domeſtic trade conſiſts in dogs, boats, diſhes, troughs, nets, hemp, yarn, and proviſions, and this kind of barter is carried on under a great ſhew of friendſhip; for, when one wants any thing that another has, he goes freely to viſit him, and without any ceremony makes known his wants, although perhaps he never had any acquaintance with him before: the hoſt is obliged to behave according to the cuſtom of the country; and gives his gueſt what he has occaſion for. But he may afterwards return the viſit, and muſt be received in the ſame manner.

They fill almoſt every place in heaven and earth with different ſpirits, and offer them ſacrifices upon every occaſion. Some carry little idols about them, or have them placed in their dwellings; but, with regard to God, they not only neglect to worſhip him, but, in caſe of troubles and misfortunes, they curſe and blaſpheme him.

It is very diverting to ſee them attempt to reckon above ten; for, having reckoned the fingers of both hands, they claſp them together, which ſignifies ten; then they begin with their toes, and count to twenty; after which they are quite confounded, and cry, Metcha? that is, Where ſhall I take more? They reckon ten months in the year, ſome of which are longer and ſome ſhorter; for they do not divide them by the changes of the moon, but by the order of particular occurrences that happen in thoſe regions; they commonly divide our year into two, ſo that winter is one year, and ſummer another: the ſummer year begins in May, and the winter in November.

They do not diſtinguiſh the days by

by any particular appellation, nor form them into weeks or months, nor yet know how many days are in the month or year. They mark their epochs by ſome remarkable thing or other, ſuch as the arrival of the Ruſſians, the great rebellion, or the firſt expedition to Camchatca.

They are ignorant of the cauſes of eclipſes, but, when they happen, they carry fire out of their huts, and pray the luminary eclipſed to ſhine as formerly. They know only three conſtellations; the Great Bear, the Pleiades, and the three ſtars in Orion; and give names only to the principal winds.

If any one kills another, he is to be killed by the relations of the perſon ſlain. They burn the hands of people who have been frequently caught in theft, but, for the firſt offence, the thief muſt reſtore what he hath ſtolen, and live alone in ſolitude, without expecting any aſſiſtance of others. They never have any diſputes about their land, or their huts, every one having land and water more than ſufficient for his wants.

They think themſelves the happieſt people in the world, and look upon the Ruſſians who are ſettled among them with contempt. However, this notion begins to change; for the old people, who are confirmed in their cuſtoms, drop off, and the young ones, being converted to the Chriſtian religion, adopt the cuſtoms of the Ruſſians, and deſpiſe the barbarity and ſuperſtition of their anceſtors.

In every Oſtrog, or large village, by order of her Imperial majeſty, is appointed a chief who is ſole judge in all cauſes, except thoſe of life and death; and not only theſe chiefs, but even the common people have their chapels for worſhip. Schools are alſo erected in almoſt every village, to which the Camchatcans ſend their children with great pleaſure: by this means, it is to be hoped, that barbarity will be in a ſhort time rooted out from amongſt them.

Of the Oſtrogs, or habitations of the Camchatcans.

Under the name of Oſtrog, is underſtood every habitation conſiſting of one or more huts, all ſurrounded by an earthen wall or paliſadoe.

The huts are built in the following manner: they dig a hole in the earth about five feet deep, the breadth and length proportioned to the number of people deſigned to live in it. In the middle of this hole they plant four thick wooden pillars; over theſe they lay balks, upon which they form the roof or cieling, leaving in the middle a ſquare opening, which ſerves them for a window and chimney; this they cover with graſs and earth, ſo that the outward appearance is like a round hillock; but within they are an oblong-ſquare, with the fire-place in one of the long ſides of the ſquare: between the pillars, round the walls of their huts, they make benches, upon which each family lies ſeparately, but, on that ſide oppoſite to the fire, there are no benches, it being deſigned for their kitchen furniture, in which they dreſs their victuals for

themſelves and dogs. In theſe huts where there are no benches, there are balks laid upon the floor, and covered with mats. They adorn the walls of their huts with mats made of graſs.

They enter their huts by ladders commonly placed near the fire-hearth, ſo that, when they are heating their huts, the ſteps of the ladder become ſo hot, and the ſmoke ſo thick, that it is almoſt impoſſible for a ſtranger to go up or down without being burnt, and even ſtifled to death; but the natives find no difficulty in it; and tho' they can only fix their toes on the ſteps of the ladder, they mount like ſquirrels; nor do the women heſitate to go through this ſmoke with their children upon their ſhoulders; though there is another opening through which the women are allowed to paſs; but, if any man ſhould pretend to do the ſame, he would be laughed at. The Camchatcans live in theſe huts all the winter, after which they go into others which they call balagans: theſe ſerve them not only to live in during the ſummer, but alſo for magazines. They are made in the following manner: Nine pillars, about two fathom long, or more, are fixed in the ground, and bound together with balks laid over them, which they cover with rods, and over all lay graſs, faſtening ſpars, and a round ſharp roof at top, which they cover with bramble, and thatch with graſs. They faſten the lower ends of the ſpars to the balks with ropes and thongs, and have a door on each ſide, one directly oppoſite to the other. They make uſe of the ſame kind of huts, to keep their fiſh, &c. till winter comes on, when they can more eaſily remove it; and this without any guard, only taking away the ladders. If theſe buildings were not ſo high, the wild beaſts would undoubtedly plunder them; for, notwithſtanding all their precaution, the bears ſometimes climb up and force their way into their magazines, eſpecially in the harveſt, when the fiſh and berries begin to grow ſcarce.

The ſouthern Camchatcans commonly build their villages in thick woods, and other places which are naturally ſtrong, not leſs than twenty verſts from the ſea; and their ſummer habitations are near the mouths of their rivers; but thoſe who live upon the Penchinſka ſea, and the eaſtern ocean, build their villages very near the ſhore. They look upon that river near which their village is ſituated, as the inheritance of their tribe.

Of their houſhold furniture, and other neceſſary utenſils.

Before the arrival of the Ruſſians, the Camchatcans uſed ſtones and bones inſtead of metals, out of which they made hatchets, ſpears, arrows, needles, and lances. Their hatchets were made of the bones of whales and rein-deer, and ſometimes of agate or flint ſtones. They were ſhaped in the form of a wedge, and faſtened to crooked handles. With theſe they hollowed out their canoes, bowls, diſhes, and troughs; which, with cans of birch bark, conſtituted the whole of their furniture; but with ſo much expence of trouble and time, that a canoe would be three years in making, and a large bowl

one

one year. For this reaſon, a large canoe or trough was in as great eſteem among them as a veſſel of the moſt precious metal and fineſt workmanſhip is with us; and the village which was in poſſeſſion of ſuch valued themſelves extremely upon it, eſpecially if they were maſters of a bowl which would ſerve for more than one gueſt. Theſe bowls they dreſs their victuals and heat their broth in by throwing red-hot ſtones into it.

Their knives were made of a greeniſh mountain cryſtal, ſharp-pointed, and ſhaped like a lancet, which was ſtuck into a wooden handle. Of ſuch cryſtals were made likewiſe their arrows, ſpears, and lancets, with which they continue ſtill to let blood. Their ſewing needles they made of the bones of ſables, with which they not only ſewed their cloaths together, but made alſo very curious embroidery.

In order to kindle fire they uſe a board of dry wood with round holes in the ſides of it, and a ſmall round ſtick; this they rub in a hole till it takes fire, and inſtead of tinder they uſe dry graſs beat ſoft. Theſe inſtruments are held in ſuch eſteem by the Camchatcans, that they are never without them, and they value them more than our ſteels and flints: but they are exceſſively fond of other iron inſtruments, ſuch as hatchets, knives, or needles; nay, at the firſt arrival of the Ruſſians a piece of broken iron was looked upon as a great preſent, and even now they receive it with thankfulneſs, finding uſe for the leaſt fragment either to point their arrows or make darts, which they do by hammering it out cold between two ſtones. As ſome of them delight in war, the Ruſſian merchants are forbid to ſell them any warlike inſtruments; but they are ingenious enough to make ſpears and arrows out of the iron pots and kettles which they buy; and they are ſo dextrous, when the eye of a needle breaks, as to make a new eye, which they will repeat until nothing remains but the point.

The Camchatcans make their boats of poplar-wood; but the Kuriles not having any wood of their own, make uſe of what is thrown on ſhore by the ſea, and is ſuppoſed to come from the coaſts of Japan, China, or America. The northern inhabitants of Camchatca, the ſettled Koreki and Chukorſkoi, for want of proper timber and plank, make their boats of the ſkins of ſea-animals. They ſew the pieces together with whales beards, and caulk them with moſs or nettles beat ſmall.

Theſe boats hold two perſons, one of which ſits in the prow, and the other in the ſtern. They puſh them againſt the ſtream with poles, which is attended with great trouble: when the current is ſtrong, they can ſcarcely advance two feet in ten minutes; notwithſtanding which they will carry theſe boats full loaded ſometimes 20 verſts, and, when the ſtream is not very ſtrong, even 30 or 40 verſts.

The larger boats carry 30 or 40 pood; when the goods are not very heavy, they lay them upon a float or bridge reſting upon two boats joined together. They uſe this method in tranſporting their proviſions down the ſtream, and alſo to and from the iſlands.

Of the labour appropriated to the different ſexes.

In the ſummer time the men are employed in catching, drying, and tranſporting fiſh to their habitations; in preparing bones and ſour fiſh to feed their dogs: the women, in cleaning the fiſh, and ſpreading it out to dry; ſometimes they go a fiſhing with their huſbands. After their fiſhing is over, they gather in the herbs, roots, and berries, both for food and medicine.

In the harveſt the men catch the fiſh that appear at that time, and kill fowl, ſuch as geeſe, ducks, ſwans, and the like; teach their dogs to draw carriages, and prepare wood for their ſledges, and other uſes. The women at this time are buſy in pulling up nettles, of which they make their thread; watering, breaking, and peeling them, and laying the hemp of them up in their balagans.

The men in the winter hunt for ſables and foxes, weave fiſhing nets, make ſledges, fetch wood, and bring home the proviſions, which they had prepared in the ſummer, and could not bring home in the harveſt. The women are principally employed in ſpinning threads for nets.

In the ſpring, when the rivers begin to thaw, and the fiſh that wintered in them go towards the ſea, the men are buſied in catching them and the amphibious animals that at this time frequent the bays. The people upon the Eaſtern ocean catch the ſea beaver. All the women go into the fields, where they gather wild garlic, and other young tender herbs, which they uſe not only in a ſcarcity of other proviſion, which often happens at this ſeaſon of the year, but likewiſe out of luxury; for ſo fond are they of every thing that is green, that, during the whole ſpring, they are ſeldom without having ſome of it in their mouths; and, though they always bring home a great bundle of greens, it ſeldom laſts them above a day.

Beſides the above mentioned employments, the men are obliged to build their huts and balagans, to heat their huts, dreſs victuals, feed their dogs, flea the animals, whoſe ſkins are uſed in cloathing, and provide all houſhold and warlike inſtruments: the women are the only taylors and ſhoemakers, for they dreſs the ſkins, make the cloaths, ſhoes, and ſtockings: it is even a diſgrace for the men to do any thing of that ſort; ſo that they looked upon the Ruſſians who came here firſt in a very ridiculous light, when they ſaw them uſe either the needle or awl. The women are likewiſe employed in dying ſkins, in conjuration, and curing of the ſick.

Their method of preparing and dying ſkins, ſewing and joining them, is as follows: Skins which they uſe for cloaths, ſuch as thoſe of the deer, ſeal, dog, and beaver, they prepare in the following manner. Firſt they wet and ſpread them out, ſcrape off all the pieces of fat or veins that remained after fleaing, with ſtones fixed in pieces of wood; then rubbing it over with freſh or ſour caviar, they roll it up and tread it with their feet till the hide begins to ſtink; they again ſcrape and clean it, and continue this till the ſkin is ſoft and clean. Such ſkins, as thy

they want to prepare without the hair, they uſe at firſt in the ſame manner as above; then hang them in the ſmoke for a week, and afterwards ſoak them in warm water to make the hair fall off; at laſt, rubbing them with caviar, by frequent treading, and ſcraping them with ſtones, they make them clean and ſoft.

They dye the deer and dog ſkins, which they uſe for cloathing, with alder bark cut and rubbed very ſmall. The ſeal ſkins they dye in a more curious manner: having firſt cleaned off the hair, they make a bag of the ſkins, and turning the hair-ſide outward, they pour it into a ſtrong decoction of alder bark; after it has lain thus ſome time, they hang it upon a tree, and beat it with a ſtick. This operation they repeat till the colour is gone quite through the ſkin; then they rip it open, and, ſtretching it out, dry it in the air; at laſt they rub it till it becomes ſoft and fit for uſe. Such ſkins are not unlike dreſſed goat ſkins; however, Steller ſays, that the Lamuſhki have yet a better way of preparing them. Theſe ſkins they call mandari, and they are worth three ſhillings a piece. The hair of the ſeals, with which they ornament their cloaths and ſhoes, is dyed with the juice of the red wortleberry boiled with alder bark, alum, and lac lunæ; which makes a very bright colour. They uſed to ſew their cloaths and ſhoes with needles made of bone, and inſtead of thread they made uſe of the fibres of the deer, which they ſplit to the ſize or thickneſs required.

They make glew of the dried ſkins of fiſhes, and particularly of the whale ſkin. A piece of this they wrap up in birch bark, and lay it for a little while in warm aſhes, when it is fit for uſe; and indeed it ſeems as good as the beſt Yalck glew.

Of their dreſs.

Their cloaths, for the moſt part, are made of the ſkins of deer, dogs, ſeveral ſea and land animals, and even of the ſkins of birds, thoſe of different animals being frequently joined in the ſame garment. They make the upper garment after two faſhions; ſometimes cutting the ſkirts all of an equal length, and ſometimes leaving them long behind in form of a train, with wide ſleeves of a length to come down below the knee, and a hood or caul behind, which in bad weather they put over their heads below their caps: the opening above is only large enough to let their heads paſs: they ſew the ſkins of dogs feet round this opening, with which they cover their faces in cold ſtormy weather, and round their ſkirts and ſleeves they put a border of white dog ſkin; upon their backs they ſew the ſmall ſhreds of ſkins of different colours. They commonly wear two coats; the under coat with the hair-ſide inwards, the other ſide being dyed with alder; and the upper with the hair outwards. For the upper garment they chuſe black, white, or ſpeckled ſkins, the hair of which is moſt eſteemed for the beauty of its colours.

Men and women, without diſtinction, uſe the above mentioned garments, their dreſs only differing in their under cloathing, and in the

the covering of their feet and legs. The women have an under garment which they commonly wear at home in the houſe, conſiſting of a breeches and waiſtcoat ſewed together. The breeches are wide, like thoſe of the Dutch ſkippers, and tie below the kee; the waiſtcoat is wide above, and drawn round with a ſtring. The ſummer habits are made of dreſſed ſkins without hair; their winter garment is made of deer or ſtone-ram ſkins with the hair on. The undreſs, or houſhold habit of the men, is a girdle of leather, with a bag before, and likewiſe a leathern apron to cover them behind: theſe girdles are ſewed with hair of different colours. The Camchatcans uſed formerly to go a hunting and fiſhing during the ſummer in this dreſs; but now this faſhion is changed, and they wear linen ſhirts, which they buy from the Ruſſians.

The covering of their feet and legs is made of ſkins of different ſorts; in the ſummer time, during the rains, they wear the ſkins of ſeal with the hair outwards; but their moſt common covering is the ſkin of the legs of the reindeer, and ſometimes of the legs of other beaſts, the ſhaggieſt they can find, to preſerve them againſt the cold. But the buſkins, which both the Coſſacs and Camchatcans uſe in their fineſt dreſs, are made in the following manner: The ſole is of white ſeal ſkin, the upper part of white fine leather, the hind quarters of white dog ſkin; what comes round the legs is of dreſſed leather, or dyed ſeal-ſkin; the upper parts are embroidered. Theſe buſkins are ſo extraordinary, that, if a batchelor is obſerved to wear them, he is immediately concluded to be upon a ſcheme of courtſhip.

They wear the ſame ſort of caps as the people of Jakutſki. In ſummer they have a ſort of hats of birch bark tied about their head. The Kuriles uſe in the ſummer time caps made of platted graſs. The womens head-dreſs is the perukes that we formerly mentioned; and theſe were ſo dear to them, that, when they came to be Chriſtians, they were with difficulty prevailed upon to quit this dreſs for one more decent: however, at preſent, round the Ruſs ſettlements all is entirely changed, the women wearing ſhifts, ruffles, waiſtcoats, caps and ribbands; which change no-body now complains of, except the very old people. The women do all their work in mittins; they formerly never waſhed their faces, but now they uſe both white and red paint; for white paint they make uſe of a rotten wood, and for red a ſea-plant*, which they boil in ſeal's fat, and rubbing their cheeks with it make them very red. They dreſs moſt in the winter time, eſpecially when they either receive or pay viſits.

The common cloaths for a Camchatcan and his family will not coſt him leſs than an hundred rubles; for the coarſeſt worſted ſtockings, which coſt in Ruſſia twenty kopeeks, cannot be bought here for leſs than a ruble; and all other things are ſold in the ſame proportion.

* Fucus marinus abietis forma. Pinus maritima, ſeu fucus teres. Dood. Append. 326. Ray, Linn.

portion. The Kuriles are more able to buy good cloaths than the Camchatcans, for they can purchaſe, for one ſea beaver, as much as the Camchatcans can for twenty foxes; and one beaver coſts the Kuriles no more trouble than five foxes do the Camchatcans; for he muſt be a good hunter who catches more than ten foxes in the winter; and a Kurili thinks himſelf unlucky, if he doth not catch three beavers in the ſeaſon; beſides which, great numbers are thrown upon the ſhore by ſtorms.

Of their diet and liquors, together with their method of cooking.

The Camchatcans divide their fiſh into ſix parts; the ſides and tail are hung up to dry; the back and thinner part of the belly are prepared apart, and generally dried over the fire; the head is laid to ſour in pits, and then they eat it like ſalt-fiſh, and eſteem it much, though the ſtink is ſuch that a ſtranger cannot bear it; the ribs and the fleſh which remain upon them they hang up and dry, and afterwards pound for uſe; the larger bones they likewiſe dry for food for their dogs: in this manner all theſe different people prepare the yokola, which is their principal food, or, one may ſay, houſhold bread; and they eat it for the moſt part dry.

Their ſecond favourite food is caviar, or the roes of fiſh, which they prepare three different ways. They dry the roe whole in the air, or take it out of the ſkin which invelopes it, and, ſpreading it upon a bed of graſs, dry it before the fire; or, laſtly, make rolls of it with the leaves of graſs, which they alſo dry. They never take a journey or go a hunting without dry caviar; and, if a Camchatcans has a pound of this, he can ſubſiſt without any other proviſion a great while; for every birch and alder tree furniſhes him with bark, which, with his dried caviar, makes him an agreeable meal; but they cannot eat either ſeparately, for the caviar ſticks like glew to the teeth; and it is almoſt impoſſible to ſwallow the bark, chewed ever ſo long by itſelf. There is ſtill a fourth method, which both the Camchatcans and Koreki uſe in preparing their caviar; the firſt having covered the bottom of a pit with graſs, they throw the freſh caviar into it, and leave it there to grow ſour: the Koreki tie theirs in bags, and leave it to ſour; this is eſteemed their moſt delicate diſh.

There is a third ſort of diet, called by the Camchatcans chupriki, which is prepared in this manner: In their huts, over the fire place they make a bridge of ſtakes, upon which they lay a heap of fiſh, which remains there till the hut becomes as warm as a bagnio. If there is no great thickneſs of fiſh, one fire ſerves to dreſs it; but ſometimes they are obliged to make two, three, or more fires. Fiſh dreſſed in this manner is half roaſted, half ſmoked, but has a very agreeable taſte, and may be reckoned the beſt of all the Camchatca cookery; for the whole juice and fat is prepared with a gradual heat, and kept in by the ſkin, from which they may, when done enough, be eaſily ſeparated; and as ſoon as it is thus dreſſed, they take out the guts, and ſpread the body upon a mat to dry; this they afterwards break ſmall,

ſmall, and put into bags, carry it along with them for proviſion, eating it like the yokola.

The Camchatcans have a diſh which they eſteem very much, called huigul: It is fiſh laid to grow ſour in pits; and, though the ſmell of it is intolerable, yet the Camchatcans eſteem it a perfume. This fiſh ſometimes rots ſo much in the pits, that they cannot take it out without ladles; in which caſe indeed they uſe it for feeding their dogs.

As for the fleſh of land and the larger ſea animals, they boil it in their troughs, with ſeveral different herbs and roots; the broth they drink out of ladles and bowls, and the meat they take out upon boards, and eat in their hands. The whale and ſea horſe fat they alſo boil with roots.

There is a principal diſh at all their feaſts and entertainments, called ſelaga, which they make by pounding all ſorts of different roots and berries, with the addition of caviar, and whale and ſeal's fat.

Before the conqueſt, they ſeldom uſed any thing for drink but plain water, unleſs when they made merry; then they drank water which had ſtood ſome time upon muſhrooms. At preſent they drink ſpirits as faſt as the Ruſſians. After dinner they drink water; and when they go to bed at night, ſet a veſſel of water by them, with the addition of ſnow or ice to keep it cold, and always drink it up before morning. In the winter-time, they amuſe themſelves frequently by throwing handfuls of ſnow into their mouths; and the bridegrooms, who work with the fathers of their future brides, find it their hardeſt taſk to provide ſnow for the family in ſummer-time, for they muſt bring it from the higheſt hills, be the weather what it will, otherwiſe they would never be forgiven.

The method of travelling with dogs, and the furniture neceſſary thereto.

The dogs of Camchatca differ very little from the common houſe dogs; they are of a middling ſize, of various colours, though there ſeem to be more white, black, and grey, than of any other. In travelling they make uſe of thoſe that are caſtrated, and generally yoke four to a ſledge.

They drive and direct their dogs with a crooked ſtick about four feet long, which they ſometimes adorn with different-coloured thongs: this is looked upon as a great piece of finery. They drive their ſledges, ſitting upon the right-ſide, with their feet hanging down; for it would be looked upon as a diſgrace for a man to ſit down in the bottom of the ſledge, or to make uſe of any perſon to drive him, no-body doing this but the women.

It is very difficult to travel in theſe ſledges; for unleſs a man keeps the exacteſt ballance, he is liable every moment, from the height and narrowneſs of them, to be overturned: in a rugged road this would be very dangerous, as the dogs never ſtop till they come to ſome houſe, or are intangled by ſomething upon the road; eſpecially in going down ſteep

ſteep hills when they run with all their force, and are ſcarcely to be kept in; for which reaſon, in deſcending any great declivity, they unyoke all the dogs except one, and lead them ſoftly down. They likewiſe walk up hills; for it is as much as the dogs can do to drag up the ſledge empty. After a deep ſnow before it has been hardened by a froſt, there is no travelling with dogs till a road be made, which is effected by a man going before upon ſnow-ſhoes, whom they call brodovſhika.

The ſnow-ſhoes are made of two thin boards, ſeparated in the middle, bound together at the ends and with the fore part bent a little upwards. The brodovſhika, having one of theſe ſhoes upon each foot, leaves the dogs and ſledge, and, going on, clears the road for ſome way; then returning leads forward the dogs and ſledge ſo far as the road is made; a method which he muſt continue till he comes to ſome dwelling-houſe. This is very laborious, and it happens ſo often, that no driver ever ſets out without his ſnow-ſhoes.

When a ſtorm of driven ſnow ſurpriſes them, they are obliged with all haſte to ſeek the ſhelter of ſome wood, and ſtay there as long as the tempeſt laſts, which ſometimes is a whole week. If they are a large company, they dig a place for themſelves under the ſnow, and cover the entry with wood or brambles. Sometimes they hide themſelves in caves or holes of the earth, wrapping themſelves up in their furs; and, when thus covered, they move or turn themſelves with the greateſt caution, leſt they ſhould throw off the ſnow, for under that they lie as warm as in their common huts: they only require a breathing place; but, their cloaths muſt not be tight or hard girt about them, for then the cold is unſufferable.

Another danger attending travellers is, that in the ſevereſt froſt ſeveral rivers are not quite frozen over; and, as the roads for the moſt part lie cloſe upon the rivers, the banks being very ſteep, ſcarce a year paſſes without many being drowned. A diſagreeable circumſtance alſo to thoſe who travel in theſe parts, is their ſometimes being obliged to paſs through copſes, where they run the riſk of having their eyes ſcratched out, or their limbs broken; for the dogs always run moſt violently in the worſt roads, and, to free themſelves, very often overturn their driver.

The beſt travelling is in the month of March or April, when the ſnow is turned hard, or frozen a little at top; however, there is ſtill this inconvenience attending it, that ſometimes travellers are obliged to lodge two or three nights in deſert places; and it is difficult to prevail upon the Camchatcans to make a fire, either for warming themſelves or dreſſing victuals, as they and their dogs eat dried fiſh, and find themſelves ſo warm wrapped in their furs, that they want none; nay, all the people of this climate bear cold ſo well, that they ſleep in the open air, as ſound as others in a warm bed, and awake next morning perfectly refreſhed and alert. This ſeems to be ſo natural to all here, that ſome of them

them have been ſeen to lie down with their backs uncovered againſt a fire, and, notwithſtanding the fire has been burnt out long before morning, they continued to ſleep on very comfortably, and without any inconvenience.

Of the Camchatcan method of making war.

Though, before the Ruſſian conqueſt, the Camchatcans did not ſeem to have had any ambition of increaſing their power, or enlarging their territories, yet they had ſuch frequent quarrels among themſelves, that ſeldom a year paſſed, without one village or other being entirely ruined. The deſign of their wars was to make priſoners, in order to employ them, if males, in their hardeſt labour; or, if females, to make wives or concubines of them; and ſometimes the neighbouring villages went to war for quarrels that happened among the children, or for neglecting to invite each other to their entertainments.

Their wars are carried on more by ſtratagem than bravery; for they are ſuch cowards, that they will not openly attack any one, unleſs forced by neceſſity: this is the more extraordinary, as no people ſeem to deſpiſe life more than they do, ſelf-murder being here very frequent. Their manner of attacking is this: In the night-time they ſteal into the enemies village, and ſurpriſe them, which may eaſily be done, as they keep no watch; thus a ſmall party may deſtroy a large village, as they have nothing more to do than to ſecure the mouth of a hut, and ſuffer no-body to come out, which only one can do at a time; therefore whoever firſt attempts to eſcape is knocked down, or obliged to ſubmit to be bound.

The male priſoners which they take, eſpecially if they are men of any conſequence, are treated with all manner of barbarity, ſuch as burning, hewing them to pieces, tearing their bowels out when alive, and hanging them by the feet. This has been the fate of ſeveral Ruſſian Coſſacs, during the diſturbances of Camchatca; and theſe barbarities are exerciſed with great ſhew of triumph and rejoicing.

The private differences among themſelves were very uſeful to the Coſſacs, in their conqueſt of the nation; for, when the natives ſaw the latter attacking one village, they were ſo far from aſſiſting their countrymen, that they rejoiced at their deſtruction, not conſidering that the ſame was to be their fate next.

In their wars with the Coſſacs, they deſtroyed more by ſtratagem than by arms; for, when the Coſſacs came to any village to demand its tribute, they were received with all marks of friendſhip, and not only the tribute was paid, but likewiſe great preſents were made them. Thus, the natives having lulled them into a ſtate of ſecurity, they either cut their throats in the night time, or ſet fire to their huts, and burnt them, with all the Coſſacs which were within. By ſuch ſtratagems, ſeventy people were deſtroyed in two places, which, conſidering the ſmall number of Coſſacs that were there,

was a very conſiderable loſs; nay, it has ſometimes happened, that, when they had no opportunity of immediately deſtroying the Coſſacs, they have for two years quietly paid the tribute, waiting till they could find an opportunity of doing it. But now the Coſſacs are more upon their guard, and are particularly afraid of extraordinary careſſes, and always expect ſome bad intention, when the women in the night-time retire out of their huts. When the Camchatcans pretend to have dreamed of dead people, or go to viſit diſtant villages, there is reaſon to dread a general inſurrection.

When this happens, they kill all the Coſſacs which fall in their way, and even the Camchatcans who will not join in the rebellion. As ſoon as they hear that troops are coming againſt them, inſtead of going to oppoſe their enemies, they retire to ſome high place, which they fortify as ſtrongly as they can, and, building huts there, wait till they are attacked, when they bravely defend themſelves with their bows and arrows, and every other method they can think of; but, if they obſerve that the enemy is likely to make themſelves maſters of the fortreſs, they firſt cut the throats of their wives and children, and afterwards either throw themſelves down the precipice, or with their arms ruſh in upon their enemies, that they may not die unrevenged; this they call 'Making a bed for themſelves.' In the year 1740, the rebels threw themſelves from the hill of Utkolop, upon which they were fortified, into the ſea, after murdering all their women and children except a girl, whom they miſſed in their hurry. Notwithſtanding this reſoluteneſs, from the time that Camchatca was ſubdued, there have been but two rebellions which could be properly called ſo.

Their arms are bows and arrows, ſpears, and a coat of mail; their quivers are made of the wood of the larch-tree, glued round with birch-bark; their bow-ſtrings of the blood veſſels of the whale; and their arrows are commonly about four feet long, pointed with flint ſtones, or bone; and, though they are but indifferent, yet they are very dangerous, being all poiſoned, ſo that a perſon wounded by them generally dies in twenty-four hours, unleſs the poiſon be ſucked out, which is the only remedy known. Their ſpears are likewiſe pointed with flint or bone. Their coats of mail are made of mats, or of the ſkins of ſeals and ſea-horſes, which they cut out into thongs, and plait together. They put them on upon the left ſide, and tie them with thongs upon the right; behind is fixed a high board to defend their head, and another before to guard the breaſt.

It is remarkable, that when they march two never go abreaſt, but follow one another in the ſame path, which by uſe becomes very deep and narrow; ſo that it is almoſt impoſſible for one that is not uſed to it to walk therein, for thoſe people always ſet one foot ſtraight before the other in walking.

The

The opinions of the Camchatcans concerning God, the formation of the world, and other articles of religion.

The Camchatcans, like other barbarous nations, have no notions of a Deity, but what are abſurd, ridiculous, and ſhocking to a humaniſed mind. They call their God Kutchu, but they pay him no religious worſhip, and the only uſe they make of his name is to divert themſelves with it; they relate ſuch ſcandalous ſtories of him as one would be aſhamed to repeat. Amongſt other things, they reproach him with having made ſo many ſteep hills, ſo many ſmall and rapid rivers, ſo much rain, and ſo many ſtorms; and, in all the troubles that happen to them, upbraid and blaſpheme him. They always however celebrate three days in the month of November, hence called the month of Purification, after their ſummer or harveſt labour is over; they look upon it as a ſin to do any work, or make any viſits, before this holiday, the breach of which they never ſuffer to paſs without expiation. From hence we may ſee, that the anceſtors of this people were accuſtomed to offer up the firſt-fruits of their ſummer labours to God, and at the ſame time make merry with one another. Their ceremonies in the celebration of their holidays are extremely ſilly, and conſiſt of many ridiculous antics.

They place a pillar upon a large wide plain, which they bind round with rags. Whenever they paſs this pillar, they throw a piece of fiſh or ſome other victuals to it; and near it they never gather any berries, or kill any beaſts or birds. This offering they think preſerves their lives, which otherwiſe would be ſhortened; however, they offer nothing which can be of uſe to themſelves, but only the fins and tails of fiſh, or ſuch things as they would be obliged to throw away. In this all the people of Aſia agree, offering only ſuch things as are uſeleſs to themſelves. Beſides theſe pillars, ſeveral other places are reckoned ſacred, ſuch as burning and ſmoaking mountains, hot ſprings, and ſome particular woods, which they imagine are inhabited by devils. The world they believe is eternal, and the ſoul immortal, and that it ſhall be again joined to the body, and live eternally, ſubject to fatigues and troubles as in this preſent life, with this difference only, that they ſhall have greater plenty of all the neceſſaries of life: even the very ſmalleſt animals, they imagine, will riſe again, and dwell under the earth. They think the earth is flat, and that under it there is a firmament like our's, and under that firmament another earth like our's, in which when we have ſummer they have winter, and when we have winter they have ſummer. With regard to future rewards and puniſhments, they believe, that in the other world the rich will be poor, and the poor will be rich.

Their notions of vice and virtue are equally extravagant. They believe every thing lawful that procures them the ſatisfaction of their

their wiſhes and paſſions, and think that only to be a ſin, from which they apprehend danger or ruin; ſo that they neither reckon murder, ſelf-murder, adultery, oppreſſion, nor the like, any wickedneſs: on the contrary, they look upon it to be a mortal ſin to ſave any one that is drowning, becauſe, according to their notions, whoever ſaves him will be ſoon drowned himſelf. They reckon it likewiſe a ſin to bathe in, or to drink, hot water, or to go up to the burning mountains. They have, beſides theſe, innumerable abſurd cuſtoms, ſuch as ſcraping the ſnow from their feet with a knife, or whetting their hatchets upon the road. This may, however, be ſaid, that they are not the only people who have ridiculous ſuperſtitions.

Beſides the above mentioned gods, they pay a religious regard to ſeveral animals, from which they apprehend danger. They offer fire at the holes of the ſables and foxes; when fiſhing, they intreat the whales or ſea-horſes not to overturn their boats; and, in hunting, beſeech the bears and wolves not to hurt them.

Of their ſhamans, or conjurers.

The Camchatcans have none who are profeſſed ſhamans, or conjurers, as the neigbouring nations have; but every old woman is looked upon as a witch and an interpreter of dreams. In their conjurations, they whiſper upon the fins of fiſhes, and ſome other things; by which means they think they cure diſeaſes, divert misfortunes, and foretell futurity.

They are very great obſervers of dreams, which they relate to one another as ſoon as they awake in the morning, judging from thence of their future good or bad fortune; and ſome of theſe dreams have their interpretation fixed and ſettled. Beſides this conjuration, they pretend to chiromancy, and to foretell a man's good or bad fortune by the lines of his hand; but the rules which they follow are kept a great ſecret.

Of their friendſhip and hoſpitality.

When any man ſeeks the friendſhip of another, he invites him to his hut, and for his entertainment dreſſes as much of his beſt victuals as might ſerve ten people. As ſoon as the ſtranger comes into the hut, which is made very hot for his reception, both he and the hoſt ſtrip themſelves naked: then great plenty of victuals is ſet before the gueſt; and while he is eating, the hoſt throws water upon red-hot ſtones, until he makes the hut inſupportably hot. The ſtranger endeavours all he can to bear this exceſſive heat, and to eat up all the victuals, whilſt the hoſt is ſtill endeavouring to oblige him to complain of the heat, and to beg to be excuſed from eating all up. It is reckoned a diſhonour to the hoſt, and a mark of niggardlineſs, if he ſhould not be able to accompliſh this. He himſelf eats nothing during the whole time, and is allowed to go out of the hut; but the ſtranger is not ſuffered to ſtir, until he acknowledges himſelf overcome. At theſe feaſts they over-eat themſelves to ſuch a degree, that for three days they cannot bear the ſight of victuals, and are ſcarce able to move.

When the ſtranger is gorged,

and can no longer endure the heat, he purchaſes his diſmiſſion with preſents of dogs, cloaths, or whatever is agreeable to his hoſt. This, however, is reckoned no injury, but a proof of friendſhip; for he expects, in turn, to uſe his friend in the ſame manner.

In their banquets they treat their friends much the ſame way, ſave only that they do not torment them with heat, nor expect any preſents. When they entertain with the fat of ſeals or whales, they cut it out into ſlices; and the hoſt, kneeling before his company, with one of theſe ſlices in one hand, and a knife in the other, thruſts the fat into their mouths, crying, in a ſurly tone, 'Ta na,' and with his knife cuts off all that hangs out of their mouths, after they are crammed as full as they can hold. Whoever wants any thing from another, may generally obtain it upon theſe occaſions; for it is reckoned diſhonourable for the gueſt to refuſe his generous hoſt any thing.

Of their courtſhips, marriages, &c.

When a Camchatcan reſolves to marry, he looks about for a bride in ſome of the neighbouring villages, ſeldom in his own; and, when he finds one to his mind, he diſcovers his inclination to the parents, deſiring that he may have the liberty of ſerving them for ſome time: this permiſſion he eaſily obtains, and, during his ſervice, he ſhews an uncommon zeal to ſatisfy them in whatever he does. The time of his ſervice expired, he deſires liberty to take his bride; and, if he has happened to pleaſe the parents, his bride, and her relations, his requeſt is preſently granted; but if they diſapprove of it, they diſmiſs him with ſome ſmall reward for his ſervices. It ſometimes happens that theſe bridegrooms, without diſcovering any thing of their intention, engage themſelves in ſervice in ſome diſtant village; and tho' every one ſuſpects their deſign, yet no notice is taken of it, till they declare it.

When a bridegroom obtains the liberty of ſeizing his bride, he ſeeks every opportunity of finding her alone, or in the company of a few people; for during this time all the women in the village are obliged to protect her: beſides, ſhe has two or three different coats, and is ſo ſwathed round with fiſh nets and ſtraps, that ſhe has ſcarce more motion than a ſtatue. If the bridegroom happens to find her alone, or with few in company, he throws himſelf upon her, and begins to tear off her cloaths, nets, and ſtraps; for to ſtrip the bride naked, conſtitutes the ceremony of marriage. This is not always an eaſy taſk; for though ſhe herſelf makes little reſiſtance (and indeed ſhe can make but little) yet, if there happen to be many women near, they all fall upon the bridegroom without any mercy, beating and dragging him by the hair, ſcratching his face, and uſing every other method they can think of to prevent him from accompliſhing his deſign. If the bridegroom is ſo happy as to obtain his wiſh, he immediately runs from her, and the bride, as a proof of her being conquered, calls him back with a ſoft and tender voice, and thus the marriage is concluded. This victory is ſeldom obtained at once, but ſometimes the conteſt laſts a whole year; and, after every attempt, the bridegroom is obliged to take ſome time to recover ſtrength, and

to

to cure the wounds he has received. There is an inſtance of one, who, after having perſevered for ſeven years, inſtead of obtaining a bride, was rendered quite a cripple, the women having uſed him very barbarouſly.

As ſoon as the ceremony is over, he is at liberty next night to go to her bed, and, the day following, carries her off to his own village. After ſome time, the bride and bridegroom return to the bride's relations, where the marriage feaſt is celebrated in the following manner; of which the author was an eye-witneſs in 1739.

The bridegroom, his friends, and wife, viſited the father-in-law in three boats. All the women were in the boats, and the men, being naked, puſhed them along with poles. About one hundred paces from the village to which they were going, they landed, began to ſing, and uſed conjurations with tow faſtened upon a rod, muttering ſomething over a dried fiſh's head, which they wrapped in the tow, and gave to an old woman to hold. The conjuration being over, they put upon the bride a coat of ſheep's ſkin, and tied four images about her: thus loaded ſhe had ſome difficulty to move. They went again into their boats, and came up to the village, where they landed a ſecond time; at this landing-place a boy of the village met them, and taking the bride by the hand, led her along, all the women following.

When the bride came to the hut, they tied a ſtrap round her, by which ſhe was let down the ſtairs, the old woman who carried the fiſh's head going before her. This head ſhe laid down at the foot of the ſtairs, where it was trodden upon by the bride and bridegroom, and all the people preſent, and then thrown into the fire.

All the ſtrangers took their places, having firſt ſtripped the bride of ſuperfluous ornaments. The bridegroom heated the hut, and dreſſed the victuals which they had brought with them, and entertained the inhabitants of the village. The next day the maſter of the hut entertained the ſtrangers with great abundance, who on the third day departed; the bride and bridegroom only remained to work ſome time with their father. The ſuperfluous parts of dreſs which were taken from the bride, were diſtributed among the relations, who were obliged to return her preſents of far greater value.

Theſe ceremonies only relate to a firſt marriage; for in the marriage of widows, the man and woman's agreement is ſufficient; but he muſt not take her to himſelf, before her ſins are taken away. This can only be done by ſome ſtranger's firſt lying with her once; but, as this taking off of ſin was looked upon by the Camchatcans as very diſhonourable for the man, it was formerly difficult to find one to undertake it, ſo that the poor widows were at a great loſs before our Coſſacs came amongſt them; ſince which they have been in no want of ſtrangers to take away their ſins. Marriage is forbidden only between father and daughter, mother and ſon; a ſon-in-law may marry his mother-in-law, and a father-in-law his daughter-in-law; and firſt couſins marry frequently. Their divorce is very eaſy, con-

fiſting only in a man's ſeparating beds from his wife. In ſuch caſes the man immediately marries another wife, and the woman accepts of another huſband, without any further ceremony.

A Camchatcan hath two or three wives, with whom he ſleeps by turns. Sometimes he keeps them all in one hut, and ſometimes in different huts. With every maid that he marries, he is obliged to go through the above mentioned ceremonies. Though theſe people are fond of women, yet they are not ſo jealous as the Koreki. In their marriages they do not ſeem to regard the marks of virginity. Nor are the women more jealous; for two or three wives live with one huſband in all harmony, even though he ſhould alſo keep ſeveral concubines. When the women go out, they cover their faces with a ſort of veil; and, if they meet any man upon the road, and cannot go out of the way, they turn their backs to him, and ſtand until he is paſſed. In their huts they ſit behind a mat or a curtain made of nettles; but, if they have no curtain, and a ſtranger comes into the hut, they turn their face to the wall, and continue their work; cuſtoms very extraordiuary among a people ſo barbarous in every other reſpect.

Of the birth of their children.

In general theſe people are not fruitful; for it does not appear that any one man has had ten children by the ſame woman. Their women, as they ſay, have commonly very eaſy births: the author was preſent at the delivery of one of theſe women, who went out of the hut about her ordinary buſineſs, and in a quarter of an hour afterwards, was carrying her child in her arms, without any change in her countenance. They have no profeſſed midwives, and for the moſt part the mother or neareſt relation performs the office.

The women who deſire to have children, for this purpoſe, eat ſpiders. To prevent conception they uſe ſeveral herbs, and different conjurations. Some of them are ſuch unnatural wretches, as to deſtroy their children when they are born, or throw them alive to the dogs. When a woman bears twins, one of them at leaſt muſt be deſtroyed, and ſo muſt a child born in very ſtormy weather; though the laſt can be averted by ſome conjurations. After the birth, the women, to recover their ſtrength, make uſe of fiſh broth, made with an herb which they call hale; and in a few days return to their ordinary diet.

Of their diſeaſes and remedies.

The principal diſeaſes in Camchatca, are the ſcurvy, boils, palſy, cancer, jaundice, and the venereal diſtemper. Theſe diſeaſes they think are inflicted upon them by the ſpirits that inhabit ſome particular groves, if ignorantly they happen to cut any of them down. Their principal medicines conſiſt in charms and conjurations, but at the ſame time they do not neglect the uſe of herbs and roots. For the ſcurvy they uſe a certain herb which they rub upon their gums, as alſo the leaves of the cranberry and blackberry. The Coſſacks cure themſelves with decoctions of the tops of cedar, and by eating wild garlic. The good effects of this medicine were felt by all the people that were in the Camchatca expedition.

Boils are a moſt dangerous diſ-

eaſe in Camchatca, cauſing the death of numbers. The palſy, cancer, and French diſeaſe, are ſuppoſed to be incurable; the laſt, they ſay, was not heard of before the arrival of the Ruſſians. There is likewiſe another diſtemper which they call ſuſhutch, which is a ſort of ſcab that ſurrounds the whole body under the ribs like a girdle. When this does not come to ſuppurate and fall off, it is mortal; and, they ſay, every one muſt have this once in his life-time, as we have the ſmall pox.

When they are bit by a dog, or wolf, they lay the bruiſed leaves of the ulmaria upon the wound, drinking at the ſame time a decoction of them: this decoction they alſo adminiſter in the belly-ach and ſcurvy. The leaves and ſtalks bruiſed they uſe in burns. The decoction of this herb mixed with fiſh they uſe alſo in the tooth-ach; they hold it warm in their mouths, and lay a piece of the root upon the affected tooth. They uſe a ſpecies of gentian in the ſcurvy, and almoſt againſt every diſorder.

In the jaundice, they have a medicine, which they look upon as infallible. They take the roots of the iris ſylveſtris, and, after cleaning them, beat them in warm water, and uſe the juice, which they ſqueeſe out, as a clyſter, continuing it for two days, two or three times a day: This produces a purging, and generally gives great relief. After ſome time, if the cure is not completed, they repeat it again. They neither uſe lancets nor cupping glaſſes, but with a pair of wooden pincers draw up the ſkin, and pierce it with an inſtrument of cryſtal made on purpoſe, letting out as much blood as they want.

In pains of the back, they rub the part affected before the fire, with a root of the cicuta, being careful not to touch the loins, which they ſay would produce ſpaſms. In pains of the joints, they place upon the part of a little pyramid, made of a fungus, which grows upon the birch trees, and ſet the top of it on fire, letting it burn until it comes to the ſkin, which then cracks, and leaves a wound behind, that yields a great quantity of matter. The wound they cure with the aſhes of the fungus, but ſome give themſelves no trouble at all about it. The root of the anemonides, or ranunculus, they uſe to hurt or poiſon their enemies; and they likewiſe poiſon their arrows with it.

Of their burials.

Inſtead of burning or laying the dead bodies in ſome hole, the Camchatcans bind a ſtrap round the neck of the corps, draw it out, and leave it near the hut, to be devoured by their dogs; for which they give the following reaſon, that thoſe who are eaten by dogs, will drive with fine dogs in the other world; and ſay, that they leave them near the hut, that the evil ſpirits, whom they imagine to be the occaſion of their death, ſeeing the dead body, may be ſatisfied with the miſchief they have done. However, they frequently remove to ſome other place, when any one has died in the hut, leaving the corpſe behind them in it.

They throw away all the cloaths of the deceaſed, not becauſe they imagine they ſhall have occaſion for them in the other world, but becauſe they believe that whoever

wears the cloaths of one that is dead, will certainly come to an untimely end. This ſuperſtition prevails particularly among the Kuriles of the Lopatka, who would not touch any thing which they thought had belonged to a dead perſon, although they ſhould have the greateſt inclination for it.

After the burial of the dead they uſe the following purification; going to the wood, they cut ſome rods, of which they make a ring; and, creeping through it twice, they carry it to the wood, and throw it towards the weſt. Thoſe who dragged out the body are obliged to catch two birds, of one ſort or other; one of which they burn, and eat the other with the whole family. The purification is performed on the ſame day; for, before this, they dare not enter any other hut, nor will any body elſe enter their's. In commemoration of the dead, the whole family dine upon a fiſh, the fins of which they burn in the fire.

Such was in general the ſtate of theſe people, when the Ruſſians firſt came among them; but now, by the care of the empreſs Elizabeth, miſſionaries are appointed to civilize them, and teach them the Chriſtian faith. In 1741, a clergyman was ſent by the ſynod with aſſiſtants and every thing neceſſary for this purpoſe, and for building a church which has been attended with ſuch ſucceſs, that many of them are baptiſed, and all very readily ſend their children to the ſchools opened in many places for their inſtruction; ſo that, in a few years, we may hope to ſee the Chriſtian faith planted in all theſe northern countries.

An account of the inhabitants of St. Kilda, and of the iſland itſelf; extracted from the hiſtory of that iſland lately publiſhed by the Rev. Mr. Kenneth Macaulay.

THE iſland of St. Kilda may be ranked among the greateſt curioſities of the Britiſh empire. The ſituation of the place, the genius of its inhabitants, their manners and cuſtoms, the conſtitution of their little commonwealth, that amazing dexterity with which they manage the moſt important branches of their buſineſs, that unexampled courage, with which they encounter dangers inſurmountable to any other race of men, and that perhaps happy ignorance, which renders them abſolute ſtrangers to thoſe extravagant deſires and endleſs purſuits, which keep the great and active world in a conſtant agitation: all theſe, and ſome other extraordinary circumſtances, taken together at one view, ſeem highly to merit the attention of the inquiſitive. And yet all the territories, belonging to the commonwealth of St. Kilda, are no more than three ſmall iſlands and five naked rocks. The principal iſland, together with the reſt, lies in the ocean, of old called the Deucaledonian: its latitude I take to be about 58 degrees and 30 minutes. The length of the whole iſland is at leaſt three Engliſh miles, from eaſt to weſt; and its breadth from ſouth to north, not leſs than two.

The ground of St. Kilda, like much the greateſt part of that over all the highlands, is much better calculated for paſture than tillage.—Reſtrained by idleneſs, a fault

a fault or vice much more pardonable here than in any other part of Great Britain, or discouraged by the form of government under which they live, the people of this island study to rear up sheep, and to kill wild-fowl, much more than to engage deeply in the more toilsome business of husbandry.

All the ground hitherto cultivated in this island, lies round the village. The soil is thin, full of gravel, and of consequence very sharp. This, though naturally poor, is however rendered extremely fertile, by the singular industry of very judicious husbandmen: these prepare and manure every inch of their ground, so as to convert it into a kind of garden. All the instruments of agriculture they use, or indeed require, according to their system, are a spade, a mall, and a rake or harrow. After turning up the ground with a spade, they rake or harrow it very carefully, removing every small stone, every noxious root or growing weed that falls in their way, and pound down every stiff clod into dust.

It is certain that a small number of acres well-prepared in St. Kilda, in this manner, will yield more profit to the husbandman than a much greater number when roughly handled in a hurry, as is the case in the other western isles. The people of St. Kilda sow and reap very early, I mean earlier than any of their neighbours on the western coast of Scotland. The soil, I have already remarked, is naturally sharp, and not spungy. The heat of the sun, reflected from the hills and rocks into a low valley facing the south-east, must in the summer time be quite intense; and however rainy the climate is, the corn must, for these reasons, grow very fast, and, ripen early. I saw the barley of this island about the beginning of June, and observed that it was higher in the stalk than any I had ever seen elsewhere at that season.

The harvest is commonly over at this place before the beginning of September; and should it fall out otherwise, the whole crop would be almost destroyed by the equinoctial storms.—All the islanders on the western coast, have great reason to dread the fury of autumnal tempests: these, together with the excessive quantities of rain they have, generally, throughout seven or eight months of the year, are undoubtedly the most disadvantageous and unhappy circumstances of their lives. The St. Kildians have more than an equal portion of this sore evil.

Barley and oats are the only sorts of grain known at St, Kilda, nor does it seem calculated for any other. Fifty bolls of the former, old highland measure, are every year brought from there to Harris; and all the western islands hardly produce any thing so good of the kind. Potatoes have been introduced among that people only of late, and hitherto they have raised but small quantities of them.

The only appearance of a garden in this whole land, so the natives call their principal island in their own language, is no more than a very inconsiderable piece of ground, which is inclosed, and planted with some cabbages.

On the eaſt-ſide of the iſland, at the diſtance of a quarter of a mile from the bay, lies the village, where the whole body of this little people (the number of adult males amounting to no more than twenty-two) live together, like the inhabitants of a town or city. Their houſes are built in two rows, regular and facing one another, with a tolerable cauſeway in the middle, which they call the ſtreet.

Theſe habitations are made and contrived in a very uncommon manner. Every one of them is flat in the roof, or nearly ſo, much like the houſes of ſome oriental nations.—That from any one of theſe the St. Kildians have borrowed their manner of building, no man of ſenſe will entertain a ſuſpicion. They have been taught this leſſon by their own reaſon, improved by experience.

The place in which their lot has fallen, is peculiarly ſubject to violent ſqualls and furious hurricanes: were their houſes raiſed higher than at preſent, they believe the firſt winter ſtorm would bring them down about their ears.—For this reaſon the precaution they take in giving them roofs much flatter than ordinary, ſeems to be not altogether unneceſſary.

The walls of theſe habitations are made of a rough gritty kind of ſtones, huddled up together in haſte, without either lime or mortar, from eight to nine feet high.

In the heart of the walls are the beds, which are overlaid with flags, and large enough to contain three perſons. In the ſide of every bed is an opening, by way of door, which is much too narrow and low to anſwer that purpoſe.

All their dwelling-houſes are divided into two apartments by partition walls. In the diviſion next the door, which is much the largeſt, they have their cattle ſtalled during the whole winter ſeaſon; the other ſerves for kitchen, hall, and bed-room.

It will be readily expected that a race of men and women, bred in St. Kilda, muſt be a very ſlovenly generation, and every way inelegant. I confeſs it is impoſſible to defend them from this imputation. Their method of preparing a ſort of manure, to them indeed of vaſt uſe, proves that they are very indelicate.

After having burnt a conſiderable quantity of dried turf, they ſpread the aſhes with the niceſt care over the floor of that apartment, in which they eat and ſleep. Theſe aſhes, ſo exactly laid out, they cover with a rich friable ſort of earth: over this bed of earth they ſcatter a proportionable heap of that duſt into which peats are apt to crumble away: this done, they water, tread, and beat the whole compoſt into a hard floor, on which they immediately make new fires very large, and never extinguiſhed till they have a ſufficient ſtock of new aſhes on hand. The ſame operations are repeated with a never-failing punctuality till they are juſt ready to ſow their barley; by that time the walls of their houſes are ſunk down or, to ſpeak more properly, the floors riſen about four or five feet.

To have room enough for accumulating heaps of this compoſt one above another, the ancient

St.

St. Kildians had ingenuity enough to contrive their beds within the linings of their walls, and it was for the ſame reaſon they took care to raiſe theſe walls to an height far from being common in the other weſtern iſlands.

The manure produced in this way muſt undoubtedly be good, though probably rather ſharp than of long duration, as it is ſcattered in ſmall quantities upon the ſurface of the ground; ſo that the fiery and ſaline particles of it muſt ſoon evaporate. Be that as it will, thoſe who practiſe this art are abundantly laviſh in its praiſes. They call it a commodity ineſtimably precious; and one may venture to affirm, that a genuine St. Kildian would ſcruple to barter it away for all the diamonds in Braſil and Golconda.

It is certain that cleanlineſs muſt contribute greatly to health, and of courſe longævity; but in ſpite of that inſtance of indelicacy now given, and many more which might have been added, I have not been able to find, that the people of this iſland are more ſhort-lived than other men.—Their total want of thoſe articles of luxury, which have ſo natural a tendency to deſtroy the conſtitution of the human body, and their moderate exerciſes, will, together with ſome other circumſtances, keep the balance of life equal enough between them and thoſe who are abſolute ſtrangers to ſlovenlineſs.

Beſides the dwelling houſes already deſcribed, there are a prodigious number of little cells, diſperſed over all the iſland; which conſiſt entirely of ſtones, without any the ſmalleſt help of timber. Theſe cells are from twelve to eighteen feet in length, and a little more than ſeven in height. Their breadth at the foundation, is nearly equal to the height. Every ſtone hangs above that immediately below, not perpendicularly, but inclines forward, ſo as to be nearer the oppoſite ſide of the grotto; and thus by imperceptible degrees, till the two higheſt courſes are near enough to be covered by a ſingle flag at the top. To hinder the rain from falling down between the interſtices above, the upper part of the building is overlaid with turf, which looks like a fine greenſward, while new.

The inhabitants ſecure their peats, eggs, and wild-fowl, within theſe ſmall repoſitories: every St. Kildian has his ſhare of them, in proportion to the extent of land he poſſeſſes, or the rent he pays to the ſteward. From the conſtruction of theſe cells, and the toil they muſt have coſt before they could have been finiſhed, it ſeems plain that thoſe who put them together, were, if not more ingenious than their neighbours in the adjacent iſlands, at leaſt more induſtrious than their own ſucceſſors.

The St. Kilda method of catching wild-fowl, is very entertaining. The men are divided into fowling parties, each of which conſiſts generally of four perſons diſtinguiſhed by their agility and ſkill. Each party muſt have at leaſt one rope about thirty fathoms long: this rope is made out of a ſtrong raw cow hide, ſalted for that very purpoſe, and cut

cut circularly into three thongs, all of equal length; these thongs being closely twisted together, form a three-fold cord, able to sustain a great weight, and durable enough to last for about two generations: to prevent the injuries it would otherwise receive from the sharp edges of the rocks, against which they must frequently strike, the cord is lined with sheep-skins, dressed in much the same manner.

This rope is a piece of furniture indispensably necessary, and the most valuable implement a man of substance can be possessed of in St. Kilda. In the testament of a father, it makes the very first article in favour of his eldest son: should it happen to fall to a daughter's share, in default of male heirs, it is reckoned equal in value to the two best cows in the island.

By the help of such ropes, the people of the greatest prowess and experience here, traverse and examine rocks prodigiously high. Linked together in couples, each having either end of the cord fastened about his waist, they go frequently through the most dreadful precipices: when one of the two descends, his colleague plants himself on a strong shelf, and takes care to have such sure footing there, that if his fellow-adventurer makes a false step, and tumbles over, he may be able to save him.

The following anecdote of the present steward of St. Kilda's deputy, in the summer after I left the island, will give the reader a specimen of the danger they undergo, and, at the same time, of the uncommon strength of the St. Kildians. This man, observing his colleague lose his hold, and tumbling down from above, placed himself so firmly upon the shelf where he stood, that he sustained the weight of his friend, after falling the whole length of the rope.

Undoubtedly these are stupendous adventures, and equal to any thing in the feats of chivalry: I was present at an operation of this kind. My curiosity led me to so uncommon a trial of skill: before it was half over, I was greatly shocked, and most heartily sick of it. Two noted heroes were drawn out from among all the ablest men of the community: one of them fixed himself on a craggy shelf: his companion went down sixty fathoms below him; and after having darted himself away from the face of a most alarming precipice, hanging over the ocean, he began to play his gambols: he sung merrily, and laughed very heartily. The crew were inexpressibly happy; but for my part, I was all the while in such distress of mind, that I could not for my life run over half the scene with my eyes. The fowler, after having performed several antic tricks, and given us all the entertainment his art could afford, returned in triumph, and full of his own merit, with a large string of fowls about his neck, and a number of eggs in his bosom.

This method of fowling, resembles that of the Norwegians, as described by Bishop Pontoppidan: but we must here take leave of the St. Kildians.

Anecdotes

Anecdotes of Jethro Tull, Esq; inventor of the new method of husbandry, called the horse-hoeing, or, more justly from his name, the Tullian husbandry.

JEthro Tull, Esq; of Prosperous farm, on the borders of Berkshire, where he wrote his treatise on horse-hoeing husbandry, was a gentleman of an ancient family in Oxfordshire, had a competent paternal estate, and a liberal university education, which he improved by applying himself to the study of the law, not as a profession, but to investigate the true principles of the constitution of his country, in which he hoped, one day or other, to make no inconsiderable figure; after being admitted a barrister in the temple, he made what is called the *grand tour*, visited the several courts of *Europe*, and in every country through which he passed, was a diligent observer of the soil, culture, and vegetable productions natural to each; and of the different methods of ploughing, sowing, planting, and reaping; and the various instruments made use of in various countries for that purpose.

Upon his return home he settled upon his estate in Oxfordshire, married a lady of a genteel family; and being naturally inclined to an active life, occupied a farm of his own; and applied himself to the management of it in the way that he thought most rational.

In observing the vineyard culture in the most fruitful parts of France, he discovered, or thought he discovered, one general method of cultivating all land to advantage in all countries; he observed, that where the vines flourished best, the vineyards were most regularly planted, and the soil most perfectly dreſt; that by frequently ploughing, hoeing, and stirring, the ground was kept fine and light, the weeds destroyed, and the soil enriched: that where this care was taken, the clusters were large and full, and the juice rich and high-flavoured; but where the vines were suffered to grow promiscuously, and all culture neglected, save pruning, the clusters were comparatively lean and meagre, the juice poor and flat, and the annual shoots far less luxuriant than in the vineyards properly managed. From these observations he concluded that a regular method of planting or sowing every kind of vegetable was the way to propagate it to most advantage, and he began with experiments upon corn and grass to confirm or disprove his new hypothesis.

The success of the experiments he made in his garden, encouraged him to extend them into his field, and he now first began to contrive instruments to facilitate the labour, and to render the whole business of husbandry as expeditious in his new way, as it was, after long practice, in the old.

Novelty always excites curiosity; many gentlemen came from different parts on the fame of this new method of farming; some of whom were persuaded by the weight of Mr. Tull's arguments, to go hand in hand with him in the course of his experiments; while others, who thought themselves more wise, and more discerning, took every occasion of ridiculing the practice, and of representing it as a fanciful project, that after a great expence would end in nothing but the ruin of the projector. In general, the whole body of farmers and husbandmen pronounced the man a conjurer, who, by sowing a third part

part of his land, could make it produce a quantity equal to that of ſowing the whole.

While the project engroſſed the converſation of the neighbourhood for many miles round, Mr. Tull employed himſelf aſſiduouſly in training of ſervants, and in accommodating the inſtruments proper for his new huſbandry, to their limited capacities: and this work he found much harder to accompliſh than he at firſt expected. It was leſs eaſy to drive the ploughman out of his way, than to teach the beaſts of the field to perform the work. The late Lord Ducie Moreton, who followed Mr. Tull, or rather accompanied him in this laborious and vexatious buſineſs, has very frequently, if I have been rightly informed, to corect the aukwardneſs of his ploughmen, or overcome their obſtinacy, ſtript himſelf of his dignity, and put his hand to the plough himſelf.

Some time after this, Mr. Tull by intenſe application, vexatious toil, and viciſſitudes of heat and cold in the open fields, contracted a diſorder in his breaſt, which not being found curable in England, obliged him a ſecond time to travel, and to ſeek a cure in the milder climates of France and Italy. Here he again attended more minutely to the culture of thoſe countries, and, having little elſe to do, he employed himſelf during three years reſidence abroad, to reduce his obſervations to writing, with a view of once more endeavouring to introduce them into practice, if ever he ſhould be ſo happy as to recover his health, and be able to undergo the fatigues of a ſecond attempt. From the climate of Montpelier, and the waters of that ſalutary region, he found in a few months that relief, which all the power of phyſic could not afford him at home; and he returned to appearance perfectly repaired in his conſtitution; but greatly embarraſſed in his fortune.

Part of his paternal eſtate in Oxfordſhire he had ſold, and before his departure had ſettled his family on his farm at Proſperous already mentioned, where he returned with a firm reſolution to perfect his former undertaking, having as he thought deviſed means during his abſence to obviate all difficulties, and to force his new huſbandry into practice by the ſucceſs of it, in ſpite of all the oppoſition that ſhould be raiſed by the lower claſs of huſbandmen againſt it.

He reviſed and rectified all his old inſtruments, and contrived new ones proper for the different ſoils of his new farm; and he now went on pretty ſucceſsfully, though not rapidly, nor much leſs expenſively, in the proſecution of his new ſyſtem. He demonſtrated to all the world the good effects of his horſe-hoeing culture; and by raiſing crops of wheat, without dunging, for thirteen years together in the ſame field, equal in quantity, and ſuperior in quality to thoſe of his neighbours in the ordinary courſe, he demonſtrated the truth of his own doctrine, that labour and arrangement would ſupply the place of dung and fallow, and would produce more corn at an equal or leſs expence. The advantages attending the new huſbandry were now viſible to all the world; and it was now that Mr. Tull was prevailed upon by the ſolicitations of the neighbouring gentlemen who were witneſſes of its utility, to publiſh his theory, illuſtrated

luſtrated by a genuine account of the reſult of it in practice, which he engaged to do, and faithfully performed at no trivial expence.

Not led by vanity, nor encouraged by the hope of gain, to commence author, he at firſt thought only of methodizing his thoughts, and claſſing his obſervations into ſome order for the uſe of his friends; but when he once engaged, the ſubject ripened in his hands, and, like the vegetables under his culture, grew more full and perfect by a nice and orderly arrangement.

A genius, and a man zealous for his own reputation and the public ſervice, cannot handle a favourite ſubject ſuperficially. He entered into the vegetable properties of plants, their production and nutrition, with the preciſion of a philoſopher; and he laid down the methods, by which they were to be propagated, with the knowledge of an old experienced huſbandman. The inſtruments, which after various trials, he had found to anſwer the beſt, he cauſed to be carefully conſtructed, and he had them drawn, and accurately deſcribed by good artiſts, under his own inſpection; they were not filched, from one invention under pretence of ſupplying the defects of another, with a view to acquire the reputation of a mechanic, but were all the genuine production of his own invention, tried and altered again and again till they actually performed with accuracy and facility the work they were intended to complete. Such are the inſtruments which Mr. Tull has exhibited, and which have been altered and disjointed, rendered imperfect, and utterly uſeleſs by pretended improvers both at home and abroad, who perhaps never ſaw the originals, and who had not genius to comprehend the drawings, much leſs to improve and render them more uſeful.

The intention of this ſhort eſſay, is to prevent gentlemen from attending to the ſuperficial nonſenſe of many writers on huſbandry, who, diſgrace the ſubject, and to direct the practical farmer, who is really in earneſt to improve his farm, to the genuine ſource from whence he may draw that true and experienced knowledge that may be ſafely rely'd upon in practice; if that practice can be luckily introduced.

D. Y.

Hungerford, Oct. 18, 1764.

Some account of the life and writings of Mr. Thomas Simpſon, late profeſſor of mathematics at his majeſty's academy at Woolwich, fellow of the Royal Society, and member of the Royal Academy at Stockholm.

THomas Simpſon was born at Market-Boſworth, in Leiceſterſhire, Auguſt the 20th, O. S. 1710. His father was a ſtuff-weaver in that town; and though in tolerable circumſtances, yet, intending to bring up his ſon Thomas to his own buſineſs, he took ſo little care of his education, that he was only taught to read Engliſh.

In the Year 1724, the 11th of May, there happened a great eclipſe of the ſun, which proved total in ſeveral parts of England, this phænomenon, ſo aweful to many who are ignorant of the cauſe of

of it, ſtruck the mind of young Simpſon with a ſtrong curioſity to enter into the reaſon of it, and ſo be able to predict the like ſurpriſing events. It was, however, five or ſix years before he could obtain his deſire, which at length was gratified by the following accident. Being at the houſe of a relation, where he had reſided ſome time, a pedlar came that way, and took a lodging at the ſame houſe. This man, to his profeſſion of an itinerant merchant, had joined the more profitable one of a fortune-teller, which he performed by dint of judicial aſtrology. Every one knows with what regard perſons of ſuch a caſt are treated by the inhabitants of country villages: it cannot be ſurpriſing therefore that an untutored lad of nineteen ſhould look upon this man as a prodigy, and, regarding him in this light, ſhould endeavour to ingratiate himſelf into his favour; in which he ſucceeded ſo well, that the ſage was no leſs taken with the quick natural parts and genius of his new acquaintance. The pedlar intending a journey to Briſtol fair, left in the hands of young Simpſon, who had now taught himſelf to write, an old edition of Cocker's arithmetic, to which was ſubjoined a ſhort appendix on Algebra, and a book of Partridge the almanac maker, on genitures. Theſe he had peruſed to ſo good purpoſe, during the abſence of his friend, as to excite his amazement upon his return: in conſequence of which he ſat himſelf about erecting the following genethliacal type, in order to a preſage of Thomas's future fortune.

This

This position of the heavens the wizard having very maturely considered *secundum artem*, did, with much confidence, pronounce, that *within two years time* Simpson *would turn out a greater man than himself.*

It was not long after this that Mr. Simpson, being pretty well qualified to erect a figure himself, did, by the advice of his friend, make an open profession of casting nativities; from whence he derived a pretty pittance, so that he quite neglected his weaving, to which indeed he had never manifested any very great attachment, and soon became the oracle of Bosworth and its environs. Scarce a courtship advanced to a match, or a bargain to a sale, without previously consulting the infallible Simpson about the consequences. Helping folks to stolen goods, he always declared above his match; and that as to life and death he had no power. All those called *lawful Questions* he readily resolved, provided the persons were certain as to the horary *Data* of the horoscope: and, I have heard him say, more than once, with such success, that if, from very cogent reasons, he had not been thoroughly convinced of the vain foundation and fallaciousness of his art, he never should have dropt it, as he then thought himself in conscience bound to do, and accordingly abandoned it at once.

Together with his astrology he had furnished himself with enough of arithmetic, algebra, and geometry to be qualified for looking into the *Ladies Diary*, (of which he had afterwards the direction) whereby he came to understand that there was still an higher branch of mathematical knowledge than any he had been yet acquainted with; and this was the method of *Fluxions:* nevertheless our young analist was altogether at a loss to discover any English author who had written on the subject, except Mr. Hayes; and his work being a folio, and then pretty scarce, exceeded his ability of purchasing: however, an acquaintance lent him Mr. Stone's *Fluxions*, which is a translation of the *Marquis de l'Hospital's Analyse des infiniment Petits:* by this one book and his own penetrating talents, he was, as we shall presently see, enabled in a very few years to compose a much more accurate treatise on this subject than any that had before appeared in our language.

After he had bid adieu to astrology and its emoluments, he was driven to hardships for the subsistence of his family, having married a widow with two children, who soon brought him two more. He came up to London, and for some time wrought at his business in Spitalfields, and taught mathematics when he had any spare time. His industry turned to so good account, that he went home and brought up his wife and children to settle in London. The number of his scholars increasing, and his abilities becoming in some measure known to the public, he put forth proposals for publishing by subscription, *A new Treatise of Fluxions, wherein the Direct and Inverse Method are demonstrated after a new, clear, and concise Manner; with their Application to Physics and Astronomy. Also, The Doctrine of infinite Series and reverting Series*

Series univerſally, and amply explained; *fluxionary and exponential Equations ſolved*, &c.

When Mr. Simpſon firſt propoſed his intentions of publiſhing ſuch a work, he did not know of any Engliſh book founded on the true principles of *Fluxions*, that contained any thing material, eſpecially the practical part; and though there had been ſome very curious things done by ſeveral learned and ingenious gentlemen, the principles were nevertheleſs left obſcure and defective, and all that had been done by any of them in *infinite Series*, very inconſiderable.

The book was not publiſhed till 1737; the author having been frequently interrupted from furniſhing the preſs ſo faſt as he could have wiſhed, through his unavoidable attention to his pupils for his immediate ſupport. The principles of *Fluxions* therein treated of, are demonſtrated in a method exactly true and genuine, not eſſentially different from that of their great inventor, being altogether expounded by *finite Quantities*. In the firſt and ſecond parts are given a great many new, and ſome very curious examples in the ſolutions of problems, rendered plain to ordinary capacities.

The ſecond part treats of *infinite Series* where nothing is propoſed without demonſtration, and every thing illuſtrated by eaſy examples. A ſet of new rules are laid down for finding the forms of ſeries, without taking in any of the ſuperfluous terms.

The third part contains a familiar method of finding and comparing fluents, illuſtrated with ſome uſeful and eaſy applications.

In the fourth part is ſhewn the uſe of *Fluxions* in ſome of the ſublimeſt branches of *Phyſics* and *Aſtronomy*; where, beſides ſeveral things done in a method quite different from any thing to be met with in other authors, there are ſome very uſeful ſpeculations relating to the *Doctrine of Pendulums* and *Centripetal forces*.

To this is added, a *Supplement*, being a collection of miſcellaneous problems, independent of the foregoing four parts; and containing, among other matters, an inveſtigation of the areas of *Spherical Triangles*; the *Curve* of *Purſuit*; the *Paths* of *Shadows*; the motion of *Projectiles* in a *Medium*; and the manner of finding the *attractive force* of bodies in different forms, acting according to a given law.

In 1740, Mr. Simpſon publiſhed a treatiſe *On the Nature and Laws of Chance*, in 4to. To which is annexed, *full and clear Inveſtigations of two important Problems added in the ſecond Edition of Mr.* De Moivre's *Book on Chances*; and *Two new Methods for ſumming of Series*.

His next performance was a 4to. volume of *Eſſays on ſeveral curious and uſeful Subjects in ſpeculative and mixed Mathematics*. Dedicated to Francis Blake, eſq; ſince fellow of the Royal Society and his very good friend and patron. Printed in the ſame year 1740.

The firſt of theſe eſſays ſhews the theory of the apparent place of the ſtars (commonly called their *Aberration*) ariſing from the progreſſive motion of light, and of

of the earth in its orbit, with practical rules for computing the same, communicated by Dr. Bevis.

The second treats of the motion of bodies affected by projectile and centripetal forces; wherein the most considerable matters in the first book of *Newton*'s *Principia* are clearly investigated.

The third is a solution of Kepler's problem, with a concise practical rule.

The fourth is of the motion and paths of projectiles in resisting mediums; determining the most important things upon this head, in the second book of the *Principia*.

The fifth considers the resistances, velocities, and times of vibration of pendulous bodies in mediums.

The sixth contains a new method of solution of all kinds of algebraical equations in numbers, more general than ever before given.

The seventh is about the method of *Increments*, with examples.

The eighth is a short investigation of a theorem for finding the sum of a series of quantities, by means of their differences.

The ninth is a general way of investigating the sum of a recurring series.

The tenth is a new and general method for finding the sum of any series of powers, whose roots are in arithmetical progression; and applicable to series of other kinds.

The eleventh concerns angular sections, with some remarkable properties of the circle.

The twelfth shews an easy and expeditious method of reducing a compound fraction to simple ones.

The thirteenth and last, containing a general quadrature of hyperbolical curves, is a problem that had exercised the skill of several great mathematicians; none of the solutions then published extended further than to particular cases, except one in the *Philosophical Transactions*, without demonstration, by M. Klingenstierna, professor of mathematics at Upsal. This, Mr. Simpson has here investigated by two different methods, and rendered the general construction extremely easy, simple, and fit for practice.

Mr. Klingenstierna appears to have been well pleased with what Mr. Simpson had done; for being afterwards appointed secretary to the Royal Academy at Stockholm, as a mark of his esteem, he procured a diploma to be transmitted to him, whereby he was constituted a member of that learned body.

The Doctrine of Annuities and Reversions deduced from general and evident Principles: with useful Tables shewing the Values of single and joint Lives, &c. 8*vo.* 1742. This in 1743 was followed by an *Appendix containing some Remarks on a late Book on the same Subject* (by Mr. Abr. de Moivre, F. R. S.) *with Answers to some personal and malignant Representations in the Preface thereof.*

Mr. de Moivre never thought fit to reply to it.

In 1743 he published his *Mathematical Dissertations on a Variety of Physical and Analytical Subjects* in 4to. containing, among other particulars,

A demonstration of the true fi-

gure which the earth, or any planet must acquire from its rotation about an axis.

A general investigation of the attraction at the surfaces of bodies nearly spherical.

A determination of the meridional parts, and the lengths of the several degrees of the meridian, according to the true figure of the earth.

An investigation of the height of the tides in the ocean.

A new theory of astronomical refractions, with exact tables deduced therefrom.

A new and very exact method for approximating the roots of equations in number; which quintuples the number of places at each operation.

Several new methods for the summation of series.

Some new and very useful improvements in the inverse method of fluxions.

This work he dedicated to Martin Folkes, Esq; president of the royal society.

His next book was *a Treatise of Algebra, wherein the Fundamental Principles are fully and clearly demonstrated, and applied to the Solution of a variety of Problems.* To which he added, *The Construction of a great Number of Geometrical Problems, with the Method of resolving them numerically.*

This work was designed for the use of young beginners; inscribed to William Jones, Esq; F. R. S. and printed in 1745, 8vo. A new edition appeared in 1755, with additions and improvements. This is dedicated to James Earl of Morton, F. R. S. Mr. Jones being dead.

Elements of *Geometry, with their Application to the Mensuration of Superficies and Solids, to the Determination of* Maxima *and* Minima, *and to the Construction of a great Variety of Geometrical Problems.* First published in 1747, in 8vo. A 2d edition came out in 1760, with large alterations and additions, designed for young beginners, particularly for the gentlemen educated at the King's Academy at Woolwich, and dedicated to Charles Frederick, Esq; surveyor general of the ordnance.

In 1748 came out his *Trigonometry, Plane and Spherical, with the Construction and Application of Logarithms,* 8vo. This little book contains several things new and useful.

Select Exercises for young Proficients in the Mathematics, 8vo. 1752.

It contains a large variety of algebraical problems with their solutions.

A select number of geometrical problems, with their solutions both algebraical and geometrical.

The theory of gunnery, independent of the conic sections.

A new and very comprehensive method for finding the roots of equations in numbers.

A short account of the first principles of fluxions.

The valuation of annuities for single and joint lives, with a set new tables, far more extensive than any extant——This last was designed as a supplement to his *Doctrine of Annuities and Reversions,* but being thought too small to be published alone, it was inserted here. The examples given are according to the London mortality bills;

bills; but the solutions are general, and may be applied with equal facility and advantage, to any table of observations. The dedication is to John Bacon, Esq; F.R.S.

The Doctrine and Application of Fluxions, containing, besides what is common on the Subject, a Number of new Improvements in the Theory, and the Solution of a Variety of new and very interesting Problems in different Branches of the Mathematics. Two volumes 8vo. 1750.

In the preface the author offers this to the world as a new book, rather than a second edition of that published in 1737, in which he acknowledges, that, besides press-errors, there are several obscurities and defects, for want of experience, and the many disadvantages he then laboured under, in his first sally.

The notion and explication here given of the first principles of *Fluxions*, are not essentially different from what they are in his former treatise, though expressed in other terms. The consideration of *Time* introduced into the general definition, will, he says, perhaps be disliked by those who would have fluxions to be *mere Velocities:* but the advantage of considering them *otherwise* (not as the velocities themselves, but the magnitudes *they* would, uniformly generate in a given *Time*) appears to obviate any objection on that head.

By taking fluxions as *mere Velocities*, the imagination is confined, as it were, to a point, and, without proper care, insensibly involved in metaphysical difficulties. But according to this other method of explaining the matter, less caution in the learner is necessary, and the higher orders of fluxions are rendered much more easy and intelligible. —— Besides, though Sir Isaac Newton defines fluxions to be *the Velocities of Motions*, yet he has recourse to the increments or moments generated in equal particles of time, in order to determine those velocities; which he afterwards teaches to expound by finite magnitudes of other kinds.

This work is dedicated to George Earl of Macclesfield.

Mr. Simpson's *Miscellaneous Tracts*, printed in 1757 in 4to. was his last legacy to the public: a most valuable bequest, whether we consider the dignity and importance of the subjects, or his sublime and accurate manner of treating them.

The first of these papers is concerned in determining the *Precession of the Equinox*. It was drawn up about the year 1752, in consequence of another on the same subject, by M. de Sylvabelle, a French gentleman. Though its author had gone through one *Part* of the subject with success and perspicuity, and his conclusions were perfectly conformable to Dr. Bradley's observations; he nevertheless appeared to Mr. Simpson to have greatly failed in a very material, and, indeed, the only very difficult part; that is, in the determination of the *momentary Alteration* of the position of the earth's axis, caused by the forces of the *Sun* and *Moon*; of which forces, the quantities, but not the effects, are truly investigated.

The second paper contains the investigation of a very exact method or rule for finding the place of a *Planet* in its *Orbit*, from a

correction of Biſhop Ward's circular hypotheſis, by means of certain equations applied to the motion about the upper focus of the ellipſe. By this method, the reſult, even in the orbit of *Mercury*, may be found within a ſecond of the truth, and that without repeating the operation.

The third ſhews the manner of transforming the motion of a *Comet* from a *parabolic*, to an *elliptic Orbit*; being of great uſe, when the *obſerved Places* of a (new) *Comet*, are found to differ ſenſibly from thoſe computed on the hypotheſis of a parabolic orbit.

The fourth is an attempt to ſhew, from mathematical principles, the advantages ariſing from taking the *Mean* of a *Number* of obſervations, in *practical Aſtronomy*; wherein the odds that the reſult, this way, is more exact, than from one ſingle obſervation, is evinced, and the utility of the method to practice, clearly made appear.

The fifth contains the determination of certain *Fluents*, and the reſolution of ſome very uſeful *Equations*, in the higher orders of fluxions, by means of the meaſures of angles and ratios, and the right and verſed ſines of circular arcs.

The ſixth treats of the reſolution of algebraical equations, by the method of ſurd-diviſors; wherein the grounds of that method, as laid down by Sir Iſaac Newton, is inveſtigated and explained.

The ſeventh exhibits the inveſtigation of a *general Rule* for the reſolution of *Iſoperimetrical Problems* of all orders, with ſome examples of the uſe and application of the ſaid rule.

The eighth, and laſt, comprehends the reſolution of ſome general and very important problems in *Mechanics* and *phyſical Aſtronomy*, wherein, among others, the principal parts of the third and ninth *Sections* of the firſt *Book* of Sir Iſaac Newton's *Principia*, are demonſtrated, in a new and conciſe manner. —— But what may beſt recommend this excellent tract, is the application of the general equations therein derived, to the determination of the LUNAR ORBIT.

According to what Mr. Simpſon had intimated at the concluſion of his *Doctrine of Fluxions*, the greateſt part of this arduous undertaking was drawn up in the year 1750. About that time M. Clairaut, a very eminent mathematician of the *Pariſian* academy, had ſtarted an objection againſt Sir Iſaac Newton's general law of gravitation. This was a motive to induce Mr. Simpſon (among ſome others) to endeavour to diſcover whether the motion of the moon's *Apogee*, on which that objection had its whole weight and foundation, could not be truly accounted for, without ſuppoſing a change in the received law of gravitation, from the *inverſe Ratio of the Squares of the Diſtances*. The ſucceſs anſwered his hopes, and induced him to look further into other parts of the theory of the moon's motion, than he had at firſt intended: but before he had compleated his deſign, Mr. Clairaut arrived in England and made Mr. Simpſon a viſit; from whom he learnt, that he had a little before printed a *Piece* on that ſubject, a copy of which Mr. Simpſon afterwards received as a preſent, and found in it the ſame

things

things demonſtrated, to which himſelf had directed his inquiry, beſides ſeveral others.

The *facility* of the method Mr. *Simpſon* fell upon, and the *Extenſiveneſs* of it will, in ſome meaſure appear from this; that *it* not only determines the motion of the *Apogee*, in the ſame manner, and with the ſame eaſe, as the other equations, but utterly excludes all that dangerous kind of terms that had embarraſſed the greateſt *Mathematicians*, and would, after a great number of revolutions, entirely change the figure of the moon's orbit. From whence this important conſequence is derived, that the moon's *Mean Motion*, and the *greateſt Quantities of the ſeveral Equations* will remain unchanged; unleſs diſturbed by the intervention of ſome foreign or accidental cauſe.

Theſe miſcellanies are inſcribed to the Earl of Macclesfield, preſident of the Royal Society.

Several papers of Mr. Simpſon's were read at meetings of the royal ſociety, and printed in their *Tranſactions*: but as moſt, if not all of them, were afterwards inſerted, with alterations or additions, in his printed volumes, it would be needleſs to take any notice of them here.

From Mr. Simpſon's writings, I now return to himſelf. Through the intereſt and ſolicitations of the before mentioned William Jones, Eſq; he was, in 1743, appointed profeſſor of mathematics then vacant by the death of Mr. Derham, in the king's academy at Woolwich; his warrant bearing date Auguſt 25. Not long after this he was admitted fellow of the royal ſociety in 1745, having been propoſed as a candidate by Martin Folkes, Eſq; preſident, William Jones, Eſq; Mr. George Graham, and Mr. John Machin, ſecretary; all very eminent mathematicians. The preſident and council, in conſideration of his very moderate circumſtances, were pleaſed to excuſe his admiſſion fees, and likewiſe his giving bond for the ſettled future payments. At the academy he exerted his faculties to the utmoſt, in inſtructing the pupils who were the immediate objects of his duty, as well as others, whom the ſuperior officers of the ordnance permitted to be boarded and lodged in his houſe. In his manner of teaching he had a peculiar and happy addreſs; a certain dignity and perſpicuity tempered with ſuch a degree of mildneſs, as engaged both the attention, eſteem, and friendſhip of his ſcholars; of which the good of the ſervice, as well as of the community, was a neceſſary conſequence. Notwithſtanding the applauſe of ſuperiors, which Mr. Simpſon acquired in the acquittal of his duty at Woolwich, he had the misfortune to find his health decline, through his cloſe manner of living, and the want of converſing with his friends. His weak conſtitution of body was ill adapted to the vigour of his mind, having been framed with originally weak nerves. Exerciſe and a proper regimen were preſcribed him, but to little purpoſe: for he ſunk gradually into ſuch a lowneſs of ſpirits, as often in a manner deprived him of his

mental faculties, and at last rendered him incapable of performing his duty, or even of reading the letters of his friends; and so trifling an accident as the dropping of a tea-cup would flurry him as much as if a house had tumbled down.

The physicians advised his native air for his recovery; and in February, 1761, he set out, with much reluctance, (believing he should never return) for Bosworth, along with some relations. The journey fatigued him to such a degree, that upon his arrival, he betook himself to his chamber, where he grew continually worse and worse, to the day of his death, May the 14th, in the fifty-first year of his age.

He left a son and a daughter; the former an officer in the royal regiment of artillery, at present in America. The king, at the instances of Lord Viscount Ligonier, in consideration of Mr. Simpson's great merits, was graciously pleased to grant a pension to his widow, together with handsome apartments adjoining to the academy: a favour never conferred on any before.

The life of the Abbé De la Caille, *member of the royal academy of sciences at Paris*, &c.

NIcolas-Louis de la Caille was born at a little town called Rumigny, in the diocese of Rheims, the first of March in the year 1713. His father was Louis de la Caille, his mother Barbara Rubuy; both happier in qualities of mind than affluence of fortune. The father had served in the army, which he quitted, and in his retirement studied mathematics, and amused himself with mechanic exercises, wherein he proved the happy author of several inventions, of considerable use to the public.

Nicolas, almost in his infancy, took a fancy to mechanics, which proved of signal service to him in his maturer years. He was sent young to school at Mantes-sur-Seine, where he discovered such early tokens of genius, as gave his parents sanguine hopes of his future improvement.

In 1729, he went to Paris, and studied at the college de Lisieux, first the classics, and then philosophy, and mathematics, under M. Robert. In a few years his father died, and with him all family expectations: however, he happily met with a patron in the duke of Bourbon, who heard of his merit, and had been beneficent to his father.

After he had finished his course of philosophy, he went to study divinity at the college de Navarre, purposing to embrace an ecclesiastical life. Here he redoubled his studies, employing many hours of the day in reading books of religion, and as many of the night in mathematical exercises, or in contemplating the stars. This was his constant tenor of life for three years.

At length he was ordained a deacon, and officiated as such in the church of the college de Mazarin several years; but he never entered into priests orders, apprehending that his astronomical studies, to which he became most assiduously devoted, might too much interfere with his religious duties. His reputation

tion in aſtronomy ſoon procured him acceſs to the late James Caſſini, the king's firſt aſtronomer, and to the preſent M. Maraldi, who both had apartments, and all manner of inſtruments and accommodations in the royal obſervatory. With theſe he contracted a moſt intimate familiarity and friendſhip; and in the year 1738 he aſſiſted the latter in a ſurvey of the ſea-coaſt from Bayonne to Nantes.

In 1739, he was conjoined with M. de Thury, the ſon of the before mentioned M. Caſſini, in verifying the meridian of the royal obſervatory, thro' the whole extent of the kingdom of France. In the month of November, of the ſame year, whilſt he was engaged day and night in the operations which this grand undertaking required, and at a great diſtance from Paris, he was, without any ſolicitation, or even knowing any thing of the matter, elected into the vacant mathematical chair which the celebrated M. Varignon had ſo worthily filled. Here he began to teach about the end of 1740, after his return from his laborious expedition, and cauſed his lectures in due time to be printed at his own expence.

The hours that could be ſpared from the duties of his profeſſorſhip, he employed in carefully computing the reſults of the many menſurations and obſervations celeſtial and terreſtrial, relative to the buſineſs of the meridian. In the mean time, an obſervatory was ordered to be erected for his uſe in the college, and furniſhed with a ſuitable apparatus of the beſt inſtruments.

In May, 1741, M de la Caille was admitted into the royal academy of ſciences, as an adjoint member, for aſtronomy. Beſides the many excellent papers of his diſperſed up and down in their memoirs, he publiſhed elements of geometry, mechanics, optics, and aſtronomy. Moreover, he carefully computed all the eclipſes of the ſun and moon that had happened ſince the Chriſtian æra, which were printed in a book, publiſhed by two Benedictines, intituled *L' Art de verifier les dates, &c. Paris*, 1750, in 4to.

Beſides theſe, he compiled a volume of aſtronomical Ephemerides for the years 1745 to 1755; another for the years 1755 to 1765; a third for the years 1765 to 1775; an excellent work, intituled, *Aſtronomiæ fundamenta noviſſimis ſolis et ſtellarum obſervationibus ſtabilita*, and the moſt correct ſolar tables that ever appeared.

Having gone through a ſeven years ſeries of aſtronomical obſervations in his own obſervatory, he formed a project of going to obſerve the ſouthern ſtars at the Cape of Good Hope. This was highly approved of by the academy, and by the prime miniſter Comte D' Argenſon, and very readily agreed to by the ſtates of Holland.

Upon this he drew up a plan of the method he propoſed to purſue in his ſouthern obſervations, ſetting forth that, beſides ſettling the places of the fix'd ſtars, he propoſed to determine the parallax of the Moon, Mars, and Venus. But whereas this required correſpondent obſervations to be made in the northern parts of the world, he ſent to thoſe of his correſpondents who were expert

in practical aſtronomy, * previous notice in print, what obſervations he deſigned to make at ſuch and ſuch times, for the ſaid purpoſe.

Then without further loſs of time he packed up his inſtruments and made preparations for his voyage; which Comte d' Argenſon being informed of, ſent him 4000 livres, though he had never ſolicited any ſuch favour, and with it a written promiſe of whatever further ſum he might have occaſion for; this however was but a ſmall addition to his purſe, for he expended in the purchaſe of new and larger inſtruments much more than he was before poſſeſſed of.

At length, on the twenty-firſt of October, 1750, he ſet out from Paris for the Cape, accompanied only by a young artificer, who, from the great affection he bore him, earneſtly requeſted that he might be the companion of his voyage. He ſailed from Port l' Orient the twenty-firſt of November on board the Glorieux, and had the happineſs to find the captain † a very civil man, and a good mathematician, which was no ſmall ſatisfaction to him; and he proved an excellent help-mate in obſerving the latitudes, longitudes, &c. during the whole voyage. They arrived at the Cape the 19 of April, 1751.

Having waited on the governor M. Tulbagh, who received him with great civility, and during his ſtay there conferred inceſſant favours upon him, he forthwith got his inſtruments on ſhore, and with the aſſiſtance of ſome Dutch artificers ſet about building an aſtronomical obſervatory, in which his apparatus of inſtruments was properly diſpoſed as ſoon as it was in fit condition to receive them.

The ſky at the Cape is generally pure and ſerene, unleſs when a ſouth-eaſt wind blows. But this is often the caſe, and when it is, is attended with ſome ſtrange as well as terrible effects. The ſtars look bigger and ſeem to caper; the moon has an undulating tremor, and the planets have a ſort of beard, like comets.

Two hundred and twenty-eight nights did our aſtronomer ſurvey the ſouthern heavens, during which ſpace, which is almoſt incredible, he obſerved more than ten thouſand ſtars: and whereas the ancients filled the heavens with monſters and old wives tales, the Abbé de la Caille choſe rather to adorn them with the inſtruments and machines which the modern philoſophy has made uſe of in the conqueſt of nature. (See the planiſphere in his *Cælum Auſtrale Stelliferum.*)

With no leſs ſucceſs did he attend to the parallax of the Moon, Mars, Venus, and Sun.

* Theſe, beſides his aſtronomical brethren of the royal academy of ſciences, were Dr. Bradley at Greenwich, Dr. Bevis at London, Meſſrs Muller and Griſchow at Peterſburg, M. Struyk at Amſterdam, M. Wargentin at Stockholm, M. Ferner at Upſal, M. Mayer at Gottingen. Likewiſe ſeveral Jeſuit aſtronomers: F. Boſcowich at Rome, Fs. Hell and Scheffer at Vienna. F. Ximenes at Florence, F. Pezenas at Manei les, Fs. Gaubil and Benoiſt at Pekin.

† M. d' Après de Mainvillete, author of an excellent work intituled *Le Neptune Oriental.*

Having

Having thus executed the purpose of his voyage, and no present opportunity offering for his return, he thought of employing the vacant time in another arduous attempt: no less than that of taking the measure of the earth, as he had already done that of the heavens. This indeed had, through the munificence of the French king, been done before by different sets of learned men, both in Europe and America; some determining the quantity of a degree under the equator, and others, under the arctic circle: but it had not as yet been decided whether in the southern parallels of latitude the same dimensions obtained, as in the northern. This point one single man resolved to examine into, accompanied only with his friend Mr. Bestbier, (at whose house he lodged) as a guide and interpreter, the young artificer before mentioned, and a few Hottentot servants.

His labours were rewarded with the satisfaction he wished for, having determined a distance of 410814 feet from a place called Klip-Fonteyn to the Cape, by means of a base of 38802 feet three times actually measured: whence he discovered a new secret of nature, namely, that the radii of the parallels in south latitude are not the same as those of the corresponding parallels in north latitude. About the thirty-third degree of south latitude he found a degree on the meridian to contain 342222 Paris feet.

The next French ship which arrived at the Cape brought M. De la Caille instructions not to return home, but to proceed to the isles of France and Bourbon, in order to determine the position of them, which had indeed been done the last year by the above mentioned M. d'Après de Mainvillette; however he chose to obey the royal mandate, and went.

He returned to Paris the 27th of September 1754, having in his almost four years absence expended no more than 9144 livres on himself and his companion; a singular instance of honest frugality in so profuse and luxurious an age! Nor should it pass unmentioned, that at his coming into port he refused a bribe of 100,000 livres, offered by one who thirsted less after glory than gain, to be a sharer in his immunity from custom-house searches.

After receiving the congratulatory visits of his more intimate friends, and the astronomers, he first of all thought fit to draw up a reply to some strictures which professor Euler had published relative to the meridian, and then he settled the results of the comparison of his own with the observations of other astronomers, for the parallaxes. That of the Sun be fixed at 9″ ½, of the Moon at 56′ 56″, of Mars in his opposition 36″, of Venus 38″. He also settled the laws whereby astronomical refractions are varied by the different density or rarity of the air, by heat or cold, and dryness or moisture. And lastly, he shewed an easy, and by common navigators practicable, method of finding the longitude at sea, by means of the moon, which he illustrated by examples selected from

from his own obſervations during his voyages.

His fame being now eſtabliſhed upon ſo firm a baſis, the moſt celebrated academies of Europe claimed him as their own, and he was elected unanimouſly a member of the royal ſociety of London, of the inſtitute of Bologna, of the imperial academy of Peterſburg, and of the royal academies of Berlin, Stockholm and Gottingen.

In the year 1760 M. de la Caille was attacked with a ſevere fit of the gout, which however did not interrupt the courſe of his ſtudies, for he then planned out a new and immenſe work, no leſs than a hiſtory of aſtronomy through all ages, with a compariſon of the ancient and modern obſervations, and the conſtruction and uſe of the inſtruments employed in making them. In order to purſue the taſk he had impoſed upon himſelf in a ſuitable retirement, he obtained a grant of apartments in the royal palace of Vincennes; and whilſt his aſtronomical apparatus was erecting there, he began printing his catalogue of the ſouthern ſtars,* and the third volume of his Ephemerides.†

The ſtate of his health, formerly confirmed by his labours, was towards the end of the winter of 1763 greatly reduced. His blood grew inflamed, he had pains of the head, obſtructions of the kidnies, loſs of appetite, with an oppletion of the whole habit. His mind remained unaffected, and he reſolutely perſiſted in his ſtudies as uſual. In the month of March medicines were adminiſtered to him, which rather aggravated than alleviated his ſymptoms: and he was now ſenſible that the ſame diſorder which in Africa ten years before yielded to a few ſimple remedies, did in his native country, bid defiance to the beſt phyſicians; this induced him to ſettle his affairs: his manuſcripts he committed to the care and diſcretion of his eſteemed friend M. Maraldi. It was at laſt determined that a vein ſhould be opened, but this brought on an obſtinate lethargy, in which he died the twenty-third day of March, being then forty-nine years old.

He was naturally of a robuſt habit, with a very comely, open countenance, ſignificant of the complexion of his mind; humane, friendly, modeſt to an extreme.

Some account of the life of the late excellent and eminent Stephen Hales, D. D. F. R. S. chiefly from materials communicated by P. Collinſon, F. R. S.

STephen Hales, D. D. was born on the 7th of September 1677. His father was Thomas Hales, Eſq;

* M. Maraldi finiſhed the edition, and gave it the title of *Cœlum Auſtrale Stelliferum.*

† This laſt volume was printed off before the author's death, but not publiſhed. M. Bailly made an addition to it, with this title: *Catalogue de 515 Etoiles Zodiacales, obſervées en 1760 et 1761 par M. l'Abbé de la Caille, et reduites au commencement de l'année 1765, par M. Bailly, de l'Academie des Sciences.*

the eldeſt ſon of Sir Robert Hales, of Beckeſbourn, in Kent, who was created a baronet by king Charles II. on the 12th of July, 1660; his mother was Mary, the daughter and heireſs of Richard Wood, of Abbots Langley, in Hertfordſhire. They had many children, and Stephen was their ſixth ſon.

After he had been properly inſtructed in grammar learning, he was ſent to the univerſity of Cambridge, and on the 19th of June, 1696, being in his 19th year, was entered a penſioner of Corpus Chriſti, or Bennet College, under the tuition of Mr. Robert Moſs, who was then a fellow of that houſe, and who, in 1713, was advanced to the deanery of Ely.

Stephen having taken his firſt degree of batchelor of arts, was pre-elected into a fellowſhip of his college on the 16th of April 1702, being then in his 25th year; he was admitted into this fellowſhip on the 25th of February following; he proceeded maſter of arts at the next commencement; ſome time afterwards entered into orders, and became batchelor of divinity in 1711.

While he reſided in the college, he applied himſelf with great aſſiduity and ſucceſs to the ſtudy of natural and experimental philoſophy; one of the firſt aſſociates of his ſtudies, was William Stukely, now M. D. fellow of the college of phyſicians, and F. R. S. who came to reſide at Corpus Chriſti College at Lady-day, 1704. With this gentleman he uſed to ramble over Gogmagog hills, and the bogs of Cherry-Hunt-Moor, to gather ſimples, with Ray's *Catalogus Plantarum circa Cantabrigiam naſcentium* in his pocket, to which Stukely, who was a ready draughtſman, had added a map of the county, the better to direct them in their peregrinations: in ſome of theſe expeditions they collected foſſils from the gravel and chalk-pits; and in others they hunted butterflies, having contrived an inſtrument for taking them.

Mr. Hales alſo, in conjunction with his friend Stukely, applied himſelf to the ſtudy of anatomy, frequently diſſecting frogs, and other animals, in their herbalizing walks; they proceeded alſo to the diſſection of dogs, and Mr. Hales contrived a method of obtaining a preparation of the lungs in lead, of which Dr. Stukely has now ſeveral ſpecimens.

He placed a muſket barrel over a pan of lighted charcoal, ſo as to be kept in an equal and pretty conſiderable degree of heat: He then took the lungs of a dog, with the windpipe, and having faſtened the windpipe very cloſely to the touch-hole of the barrel, he applied a pair of bellows to the muzzle, and thus poured a ſtream of air, heated by its paſſage through the barrel, into the lungs; by continuing this for about an hour, ſo as to keep the lungs always inflated, they were at length perfectly dried in an inflated ſtate, ſo as not to collapſe when taken away from the gun barrel; they were then properly placed as a mould, and melted lead poured into them, the metal not being more heated than juſt to bring it into fuſion; the lungs, thus filled, were put into cold water, and ſuffered to macerate till their whole ſubſtance waſhed off, and left a perfect caſt in lead of all their fine pipes and cavities, in all their various convolutions,

lntions, and in their natural ſituation with reſpect to each other.

They applied themſelves alſo to chymiſtry, and repeated many of Mr. Boyle's experiments, making flowers of *benzoin*, *pulvis fulminans*, *elixir proprietatis*, and various other preparations, ſome of uſe, ſome of curioſity; but beſides what they did between them, they attended the chymical lectures that were then read by the public profeſſor Signior Vigani, in Queen's college cloyſters, and went alſo to ſee the chymical operations which he performed in a room in Trinity college, which had been the laboratory of Sir Iſaac Newton, and in which, unfortunately for the world, Sir *Iſaac*'s manuſcript concerning chymical principles was accidentally burnt.

Mr. Hales was equally aſſiduous and ſucceſsful in the ſtudy of aſtronomy; for having acquired a perfect knowledge of the Newtonian ſyſtem, he contrived a machine to demonſtrate it, which was conſtructed of braſs, and moved by wheels, ſo as to repreſent the motions of all the planets, upon the ſame principles, and nearly in the ſame manner as the machine afterwards conſtructed by Mr. Rowley, maſter of mathematics to king George I. which was abſurdly called an Orrery, becauſe an earl of Orrery was Rowley's patron. This machine of Hales's was ſuppoſed to be the firſt of the kind, but it appeared that Dr. Cumberland, rector of All-ſaints at Stamford, and afterwards biſhop of Peterborough, had conſtructed one of them before, when he was fellow of Magdalen college, Cambridge.

Stukely, at the requeſt of his friend Hales, made a drawing of the ſphere he invented, and that original drawing is ſtill in his poſſeſſion.

About the year 1710, he was preſented to the perpetual cure of Teddington near Twickenham, in Middleſex, and afterwards accepted of the living of Porlock in Somerſetſhire, which vacated his fellowſhip in the college, and which he exchanged for the living of Farringdon in Hampſhire.

Soon after he married Mary, the daughter and heireſs of Dr. Newce, who was rector of Haliſham in Suſſex, but reſided at Much Haddam in Hertfordſhire.

On the 13th of March $171\frac{7}{8}$, he was elected member of the royal ſociety; and on the 5th of March, in the year following, he exhibited an account of ſome experiments he had lately made on the effect of the ſun's warmth in raiſing the ſap in trees. This procured him the thanks of the ſociety, who alſo requeſted him to proſecute the ſubject.

With this requeſt, which was like the charge given by Pharaoh's daughter to the mother of Moſes, to take care of her ſon, Hales complied with great pleaſure; and on the 14th of June 1725, exhibited a treatiſe in which he gave an account of his progreſs. This treatiſe being highly applauded by the ſociety, he farther enlarged and improved it, and in April 1727 he publiſhed it under the title of *Vegetable Statics, or an account of ſome ſtatical experiments on the ſap in vegetables, being an eſſay towards a natural hiſtory of vegetation; alſo a ſpecimen of an attempt to analyſe the air, by a great variety of chemico-ſtatical experiments, which were read at ſeveral meetings of the royal ſociety.*

This

This work he dedicated to his late majesty king George the second, who was then prince of Wales; and was, the same year, chosen one of the council of the royal society, Sir Hans Sloane being at the same annual election chosen their president.

The *Vegetable Statics* was well received, and a second edition of it was published in 1731; in a preface to this edition Mr. Hales promised a sequel to the work, which he published in 1733, under the title of *Statical essays, containing Hæmastatics, or an account of some hydraulic hydrostatical experiments made on the blood and blood-vessels of animals; also an account of some experiments on stones in the kidney and bladder; with an enquiry into the nature of these anomalous concretions; to which is added, an appendix containing observations and experiments relating to several subjects in the first volume.*

In 1732 he was appointed one of the trustees for establishing a new colony in Georgia. On the 5th of July 1733, the university of Oxford honoured him with a diploma for the degree of doctor in divinity, a mark of distinction the more honourable, as it is not usual for one university to confer academical honours on those who were educated at another.

In 1734, when the health and morals of the lower and middling class of people were subverted by the excessive drinking of gin, he published, though without his name, *A friendly admonition to the drinkers of brandy, and other spirituous liquors*, which was afterwards twice re-printed: the latter end of the same year he published a sermon which he preached at St. Bride's before the rest of the trustees for establishing a new colony in Georgia. His text was, *Bear ye one another's burthens, and so fulfill the law of Christ*; Galatians vi. 2.

In 1739, he printed a volume in 8vo. intituled, *Philosophical Experiments on Sea Water, Corn, Flesh, and other Substances:* This work, which contained many useful instructions for voyagers, was dedicated to the lords of the admiralty.

The same year he exhibited to the royal society an account of some farther experiments towards the discovery of medicines for dissolving the stone in the kidneys and bladder, and preserving meat in long voyages, for which he received the gold medal of Sir Godfrey Copley's donation.

The year following (1740) he published some account of experiments and observations on Mrs. Stephens medicines for dissolving the stone, in which their dissolvent power is enquired into and demonstrated.

In 1741 he read before the royal society an account of an instrument which he invented, and called a ventilator for conveying fresh air into mines, hospitals, prisons, and the close parts of ships: he had communicated it to his particular friends some months before, and it is very remarkable that a machine of the same kind, for the same purpose, was in the spring of the same year invented by one Martin Friewald, an officer in the service of the king of Sweden, called captain of mechanics, for which the king and senate granted him a privilege in October following, and ordered

ordered every ſhip of war in the ſervice of that ſtate to be furniſhed with one of them; a model alſo of this machine was ſent into France, and all the ſhips in the French navy were alſo ordered to have a ventilator of the ſame ſort.

It happened alſo that about the ſame time one Sutton, who kept a coffee-houſe in Alderſgate-ſtreet, invented a ventilator of another conſtruction to draw off the foul air in of ſhips, by means of the cook-room fire; but poor Sutton had not intereſt enough to make mankind accept the benefit he offered them; he was, however, at length, introduced to Dr. Mead, who ſoon perceiving that it was greatly preferable to any other method for ſea ſervice, drew up and preſented a memorial to the royal ſociety, in which the ſimplicity and excellence of it was demonſtrated: he alſo cauſed a model of it to be made in copper at the expence of 200 l. which he preſented to the ſociety, and which is now in their muſæum. After ten years ſollicitation, ſupported by the influence of Dr. Mead, Sutton obtained an order to conſtruct his machine on board his majeſty's ſhips of war, and his contrivance to preſerve his fellow creatures from peſtilential diſeaſes was rewarded by a permiſſion to put it in practice, an inſtance of attention to the public, and liberality to merit, which muſt reflect everlaſting honour upon the great names who at that time preſided over the affairs of this kingdom. M. Duhamel, a celebrated mathematician of France, and ſurveyor-general of the French marine, has ſhewn how Sutton's machine may be applied with great advantage to other purpoſes, and the late ingenious Mr. Benjamin Robins, F. R. S. who was the beſt military mathematician of his time, gave his teſtimony in favour of the ſuperiority of Sutton's contrivance.

The public, however, is not leſs indebted to the ingenuity and benevolence of Dr. Hales, whoſe ventilators came more eaſily into uſe for many purpoſes of the greateſt importance to life, particularly for keeping corn ſweet, by blowing through it freſh ſhowers of air, a practice very ſoon adopted by France, a large granary having been made under the direction of Duhamel, for the preſervation of corn in this manner, with a view to make it a general practice.

In the year 1743 Dr. Hales read before the royal ſociety a deſcription of a method of conveying liquors into the *abdomen* during the operation of tapping, and it was afterwards printed in their Tranſactions.

In 1745 he publiſhed ſome experiments and obſervations on tar-water, which he had been induced to make by the publication of a work called *Siris*, in which the late learned and moſt excellent Dr. Berkeley, Biſhop of Cloyne, had recommended tar-water as an univerſal medicine: on this occaſion ſeveral letters paſſed between them on the ſubject, particularly with reſpect to the uſe of tar-water in the diſeaſe of the horned cattle.

In the ſame year he communicated to the public, by a letter to the editor of the Gentleman's Magazine, a deſcription of a *back heaver*,

heaver, which will winnow and clean corn much ſooner and better than can be done by the common method. He alſo, at the ſame time, and by the ſame channel, communicated to the public a cheap and eaſy way to preſerve corn ſweet in ſacks, an invention of great benefit to farmers, eſpecially to poor leaſers, who want to keep ſmall quantities of corn for ſome time, but have no proper granary or repoſitory for that purpoſe. He alſo the ſame year took the ſame method to publiſh directions how to keep corn ſweet in heaps without turning it, and to ſweeten it when muſty. He publiſhed a long paper, containing an account of ſeveral methods to preſerve corn by ventilators, with a particular deſcription of ſeveral ſorts of ventilators, illuſtrated by a cut, ſo that the whole mechaniſm of them may be eaſily known, and the machine conſtructed by a common carpenter. He publiſhed alſo in the ſame volume, but without his name, a detection of the fallacious boaſts concerning the efficacy of the liquid ſhell in diſſolving the ſtone in the bladder: in the urine of perſons who had taken the liquid ſhell, there appeared a white ſediment, which the diſpenſer of the noſtrum pretended to be the diſſolved ſtone; but Dr. Hales demonſtrated that it was no other than the lime of the burnt ſhell, which he precipitated with ſpirit of hartſhorn without a ſtone, and which he alſo precipitated by putting a ſtone into ſome of the liquid ſhell, though the ſtone ſuffered not the leaſt alteration.

In 1746 he communicated to the royal ſociety a propoſal for bringing ſmall paſſable ſtones ſoon, and with eaſe, out of the bladder, and this was alſo printed in their Tranſactions.

In the Gent. Mag. for July 1747, he publiſhed an account of a very conſiderable improvement of his back heaver, by which it became capable of clearing corn of the very ſmall grain, ſeeds, blacks, ſmut-balls, &c. to ſuch perfection as to make it fit for ſeed corn.

On the 21ſt of April, 1748, he communicated to the royal ſociety a propoſal for checking, in ſome degree, the progreſs of fires, occaſioned by the great fire which happened that year in Cornhill. And the ſubſtance of this propoſal was printed in their Tranſactions.

In the ſame year he alſo communicated to the ſociety two memoirs, which are printed in their tranſactions, one on the great benefit of ventilators, and the other on ſome experiments in electricity.

In the year 1749 his ventilators were fixed in the Savoy priſon, by order of the right honourable Henry Fox, Eſq; then ſecretary at war, and now Lord Holland; and the benefit was ſo great that tho' 50 or 100 in a year often died of the gaol diſtemper before, yet from the year 1749 to the year 1752, incluſive, no more than 4 perſons died, though in the year 1750 the number of priſoners was 240; and of thoſe 4, one died of the ſmall pox, and another of intemperance.

In the year 1750 he publiſhed ſome conſiderations on the cauſes of earthquakes, occaſioned by the ſlight ſhocks felt that year in London. The ſubſtance of this work was alſo printed in the

Phil.

Phil. Tranſ. The ſame year he exhibited an examination of the ſtrength of ſeveral purging waters, eſpecially of the water of *Jeſſop's well*, which is printed in the *Phil. Tranſ.*

He had now been ſeveral years honoured with the eſteem and friendſhip of his royal highneſs Frederick Prince of Wales, who frequently viſited him at Teddington, from his neighbouring palace at Kew, and took a pleaſure in ſurpriſing him in the midſt of thoſe curious reſearches into the various parts of nature which almoſt inceſſantly employed him. Upon the prince's death, which happened this year, and the ſettlement of the houſhold of the princeſs dowager, he was without his ſolicitation, or even knowledge, appointed clerk of the cloſet, or almoner to her royal highneſs.

In 1751 he was choſen by the college of phyſicians to preach the annual ſermon called Crowne's lecture: Dr. William Crowne having left a legacy for a ſermon to be annually preached on *the Wiſdom and Goodneſs of God diſplayed in the formation of man.* Dr. Hales's text was, *With the ancient is wiſdom, and in length of days underſtanding*; Job xii. 12. this ſermon, as uſual, was publiſhed at the requeſt of the college.

In the latter end of the year 1752, his ventilators, worked by a windmill, were fixed in Newgate, with branching trunks to 24 wards, and it appeared that the diſproportion of thoſe that died in the gaol before and after this eſtabliſhment was as 7 to 16. He publiſhed alſo a farther account of their ſucceſs, and ſome obſervations on the great danger ariſing from foul air, exemplified by a narrative of ſeveral perſons ſeized with the gaol fever by working in Newgate.

On the death of Sir Hans Sloane, which happened in the year 1753, he was elected a member of the academy of ſciences at Paris in his room.

The ſame year he publiſhed in the Gent. Mag. ſome farther conſiderations about means to draw the foul air out of the ſick rooms of occaſional army hoſpitals, and private houſes in towns.

He alſo publiſhed many other curious particulars relative to the uſe and ſucceſs of ventilators.

The ſame year a deſcription of a ſea gage which the Doctor invented to meaſure unfathomable depths, was communicated to the public in the ſame miſcellany: this paper was drawn up about the year 1732 or 33, by the Doctor, for the late Colin Campbell, Eſq; who employed the ingenious Mr. Hawkſby to make the machine it deſcribes, which was tried in various depths, and anſwered with great exactneſs; yet was at laſt loſt near Bermuda.

On the 19th of Dec. 1754, he communicated to the royal ſociety ſome experiments for keeping water and fiſh ſweet with lime water, an account of which was publiſhed in the *Phil. Tranſ.* He alſo continued to enrich their memoirs with many uſeful articles from this time till his death, particularly a method of forwarding the diſtillation of freſh from ſalt water by blowing ſhowers of freſh air up through the latter during the operation.

In 1757 he communicated to the editor of the Gent. Mag. an eaſy

eaſy method of purifying the air, and regulating its heat in melon frames, and hot green houſes, alſo farther improvements in his method of diſtilling ſea-water.

His reputation and the intereſt of his family and friends might eaſily have procured him farther preferment; but of farther preferment he was not deſirous; for being nominated by his late majeſty to a canonry of Windſor, he engaged the princeſs to requeſt his majeſty to recall his nomination. That a man ſo devoted to philoſophical ſtudies and employments, and ſo conſcientious in the diſcharge of his duty, ſhould not deſire any preferment which would reduce him to the dilemma either of neglecting his duty, or foregoing his amuſement, is not ſtrange; but that he ſhould refuſe an honourable and profitable appointment, for which no duty was to be done that would interrupt his habits of life, can ſcarce be imputed to his temperance and humility without impeaching his benevolence; for if he had no will of any thing more for himſelf, a liberal mind would ſurely have been highly gratified by the diſtribution of ſo conſiderable a ſum as a canonry of Windſor would have put into his power, in the reward of induſtry, the alleviation of diſtreſs, and the ſupport of helpleſs indigence. He was, however, remarkable for ſocial virtue and ſweetneſs of temper; his life was not only blameleſs, but exemplary in a high degree; he was happy in himſelf, and beneficial to others, as appears by this account of his attainments and purſuits; the conſtant ſerenity and chearfulneſs of his mind, and the temperance and regularity of his life, concurred with a good conſtitution, to preſerve him in health and vigour to the uncommon age of fourſcore and four years.

He died at Teddington on the 4th of January 1761, and was buried, purſuant to his own directions, under the tower of the pariſh church which he built at his own expence not long before his death.

Her royal highneſs the Princeſs of Wales erected a monument to his memory in Weſtminſter Abbey, with this inſcription:

STEPHANO HALES
S. T. P.
Auguſta GEORGII *tertii*
Regis optimi Mater P.
Quæ viventem
Ut ſibi in ſacris miniſtraret, elegit;
Mortuum prid. non. Jan. M. DCC. LXI.
Octogeſimum quartum agentem annum
Hoc Marmore ornavit.

Memoirs of Sir Godfrey Kneller:—From Mr. Walpole's anecdotes of painting.

SIR Godfrey Kneller was leſſened by his own reputation, as he choſe to make it ſubſervient to his fortune *. Had he lived in a country where his merit

* The author of the Abregé ſays, that Kneller preferred portrait painting for this reaſon. "Painters of hiſtory, ſaid he, make the dead live, and do not begin to live themſelves till they are dead.—I paint the living, and they make me live."

had been rewarded according to the worth of his productions, inſtead of the number, he might have ſhone in the roll of the greateſt maſters; but he united the higheſt vanity with the moſt conſummate negligence of character—at leaſt, where he offered one picture to fame, he ſacrificed twenty to lucre; and he met with cuſtomers of ſo little judgment, that they were fond of being painted by a man, who would gladly have diſowned his works the moment they were paid for. Ten † ſovereigns ſat to him; not one of them diſcovered that he was fit for more than preſerving their likeneſs. We, however, who ſee king William, the Czar Peter, Marlborough, Newton, Dryden, Godolphin, Somers, the ducheſs of Grafton, lady Ranelagh, and ſo many ornaments of an illuſtrious age, tranſmitted to us by Kneller's pencil, muſt not regret that his talent was confined to portraits. Perhaps the treaſure is greater, than if he had decorated the chambers of Hampton-court with the wars of Æneas, or the enchanted palace of Armida: and when one conſiders how ſeldom great maſters are worthily employed, it is better to have real portraits, than Madonnas without end. My opinion of what Sir Godfrey's genius could have produced, muſt not be judged by the hiſtoric picture of king William in the palace juſt mentioned; it is a tame and poor performance: but the original ſketch of it at Houghton is ſtruck out with a ſpirit and fire equal to Rubens. The hero and the horſe are in the heat of battle: in the large piece, it is the king riding in triumph, with his uſual phlegm. Of all his works, Sir Godfrey was moſt proud of the converted Chineſe at Windſor; but his portrait of Gibbons is ſuperior to it: it has the freedom and nature of Vandyck, with the harmony of colouring peculiar to Andrea Sacchi; and no part of it is neglected. In general, even where he took pains, all the parts are effectually kept down, to throw the greater force into the head—a trick unworthy ſo great a maſter. His draperies too are ſo careleſly finiſhed, that they reſemble no ſilk or ſtuff the world ever ſaw. His airs of heads have extreme grace; the hair admirably diſpoſed, and if the locks ſeem unnaturally elevated, it muſt be conſidered as an inſtance of the painter's art. He painted in an age when the women erected edifices of three ſtories on their heads. Had he repreſented ſuch prepoſterous attire, in half a century his works would have been ridiculous. To lower their dreſs to a natural level, when the eye was accuſtomed to pyramids, would have ſhocked their prejudices and diminiſhed the reſemblance.—He took a middle way, and weighed out ornament to them of more natural materials. Still it muſt be owned, there is too great a

† Charles II. James II. and his queen; William and Mary, Anne, George I. Louis XIV. Peter the Great, and the emperor Charles VI. For the laſt portrait, Leopold created Kneller knight of the Roman empire—by Anne, he was made gentleman of the privy-chamber; and by the univerſity of Oxford, a doctor.

fameneſs in his airs, and no imagination at all in his compoſitions. See but a head, it intereſts you—uncover the reſt of the canvaſs, you wonder faces ſo expreſſive could be employed ſo inſipidly. In truth, the age demanded nothing correct, nothing complete. Capable of taſting the power of Dryden's numbers, and the majeſty of Kneller's heads, it overlooked doggrel and daubing. What pity that men of fortune are not bleſt with ſuch a pen, or ſuch a pencil! That a genius muſt write for a bookſeller, or paint for an alderman!

Sir Godfrey Kneller was born at Lubec, about the year 1648. His grandfather had an eſtate near Hall, in Saxony; was ſurveyor general of the mines, and inſpector of count Mansfeldt's revenues. By his wife, of the family of Crowſen, he had one ſon Zachary, educated at Leipſic, and for ſome time in the ſervice of Guſtavus Adolphus's widow. After her death, he removed to Lubec, married, profeſſed architecture, and was chief ſurveyor to his native city. He left two ſons, John Zachary, and Godfrey. The latter, who at firſt was deſigned for a military life, was ſent to Leyden, where he applied to mathematics and fortification: but the predominance of nature determining him to painting, his father acquieſced and ſent him to Amſterdam, where he ſtudied under Bol, and had ſome inſtructions from Rembrandt. Vertue, nor any of his biographers, take notice of it, nor do I aſſert it, but I have heard that one of his maſters was Francis Hals. It is certain that Kneller had no ſervility of a diſciple, nor imitated any of them. Even in Italy, whither he went in 1672, he mimicked no peculiar ſtile; not even at Venice, where he reſided moſt, and was eſteemed and employed by ſome of the firſt families, and where he drew Cardinal Baſſadonna. If he caught any thing, it was inſtructions, not hints. If I ſee the leaſt reſemblance in his works to any other maſter, it is in ſome of his earlieſt works in England, and thoſe his beſt, to Tintoret. A portrait at Houghton of Joſeph Carreras, a poet, and chaplain to Catharine of Liſbon, has the force and ſimplicity of that maſter, without owing part of its merit to Tintoret's univerſal black drapery, to his own, afterwards, neglected draperiers, or his maſter Rembrandt's unnatural Chiaro Scuro. Latterly Sir Godfrey was thought to give into the manner of Rubens; I ſee it no where but in the ſketch of king William's equeſtrian figure, evidently imitated from Rubens's deſign of the cieling for the Banquetting-houſe, which, as I have ſaid, in the life of that painter, was in Kneller's poſſeſſion. The latter had no more of Rubens's rich colouring than of Vandyck's delicacy in habits; but he had more beauty than the latter, more dignity than Sir Peter Lely. The latter felt his capacity in a memorable inſtance; Kneller and his brother came to England in 1674, without intending to reſide here, but to return through France to Venice. They were recommended to Mr. Banks, a Hamburgh merchant, and Godfrey drew him and his family. The pictures

pleaſed. Mr. Vernon, ſecretary to the duke of Monmouth, ſaw them, and ſat to the new painter, and obtained his maſter's picture by the ſame hand. The duke was ſo charmed, that he engaged the king his father to ſit to Kneller, at the time the duke of York had been promiſed the king's picture by Lely. Charles, unwilling to have double trouble, propoſed that both the artiſts ſhould draw him at the ſame time. Lely, as an eſtabliſhed maſter, choſe the light he liked: the ſtranger was to draw the picture as he could; and performed it with ſuch facility and expedition, that his piece was in a manner finiſhed, when Lely's was only dead-coloured. The novelty pleaſed—yet Lely deſerved moſt honour, for he did juſtice to his new competitor; confeſſed his abilities and the likeneſs. This ſucceſs fixed Kneller here. The ſeries of his portraits prove the continuance of his reputation.

Charles II. ſent him to Paris to draw Louis XIV. but died in his abſence. The ſucceſſor was equally favourable to him, and was ſitting for his picture for ſecretary Pepys, when he received the news that the prince of Orange was landed.

King William diſtinguiſhed Kneller ſtill more; for that prince he painted the beauties at Hampton-court, and was knighted by him in 1692, with the additional preſent of a gold medal and chain, weighing 300l. and for him Sir Godfrey drew the portrait of the Czar; as for queen Anne he painted the king of Spain, afterwards Charles VI. ſo poor a performance that one would think he felt the fall from Peter to Charles. His works in the gallery of * admirals were done in the ſame reign, and ſeveral of them worthy ſo noble a memorial. The Kit-cat club, generally mentioned as a ſet of wits, in reality the patriots that ſaved Britain, were Kneller's laſt works in that reign, and his laſt public work. He lived to draw George I. was made a baronet by him, and continued to paint during the greater part of his reign; but in 1722 Sir Godfrey was ſeized with a violent fever, from the immediate danger of which he was reſcued by Dr. Mead. The humour, however, fell on his left arm; and it was opened. He remained in a languiſhing condition and died Oct. 27, 1723. His body lay in ſtate, and was buried at Witton, but a monument was erected in Weſtminſter Abbey †, where his friend Mr. Pope, as if to gratify an extravagant vanity dead, which he had ridiculed living, beſtowed on him a tranſlation of Raphael's epitaph—as high a compliment as even poetry could be allowed to pay to the original; a ſilly hyperbole when applied to the modern. This was not the only inſtance in which the poet incenſed the painter. Sir Godfrey had drawn for him the ſtatues of Apollo, Venus, and Hercules; Pope paid for them with theſe lines,

* Seven of thoſe heads are by Kneller, the reſt by Dahl.

† His monument, executed by Rysbrack, was directed by himſelf; he left 300l. for it.

What

What God, what genius did the pencil move,
When Kneller painted these!
'Twas friendship, warm as Phœbus, kind as love,
And strong as Hercules.

He was in the right to suppress them—what ideas does muscular friendship convey? It was not the same warmth of friendship that made Pope put Kneller's vanity to the strongest trial imaginable. The former laid a wager that there was no flattery so gross but his friend would swallow. To prove it, Pope said to him as he was painting, "Sir Godfrey, I believe if God Almighty had had your assistance, the world would have been formed more perfect." "Fore God, Sir, replied Kneller, I believe so." This impious answer was not extraordinary in the latter.—His conversation on religion was extremely free.—His paraphrase on a particular text of scripture, singular. "In my father's house are many mansions;" which Sir Godfrey interpreted thus: "At the day of judgment, said he, God will examine mankind on their different professions: to one he will say, Of what sect was you? I was a Papist—go you there. Wha t was you? A Protestant—go you there.—And you? a Turk—go you there.—And you? Sir Godfrey?—I was of no sect.—Then God will say, Sir Godfrey, chuse your place." His wit was ready; his bon mots deservedly admired. In Great Queen-street he lived next door to Dr. Ratcliffe; Kneller was fond of flowers, and had a fine collection. As there was a great intimacy between him and the physician, he permitted the latter to have a door into his garden but Ratcliffe's servants gathering and destroying the flowers, Kneller sent him word he must shut up the door.—Ratcliffe replied peevishly, "Tell him he may do any thing with it but paint it."—"And I, answered Sir Godfrey, can take any thing from him but physic."

He married Susannah Cawley, daughter of the minister of Henley upon Thames. She out-lived him and was buried at Henley, where are monuments for her and her father. Before his marriage, Sir Godfrey had an intrigue with a Quaker's wife, whom he purchased of her husband, and had a daughter, whose portrait he drew like St. Agnes with a lamb; there is a print of it by Smith. Kneller had amassed a great fortune, tho' he lived magnificently, and lost 20,000l in the South-Sea; yet he had an estate of near 2000l. a year left. Part he bequeathed to his wife, and entailed the rest on Godfrey Huckle, his daughter's son, with orders that he should assume the name of Kneller. To three nieces at Hamburgh, the children of his brother, he left legacies; and an annuity of 100l. a year to Bing, an old servant, who with his brother had been his assistants. Of these he had many, as may be concluded from the quantity of his works, and the badness of so many. His chief performers were, Pieters, Vander Roer, and Bakker—sometimes he employed Baptist and Vergazon. His prices were fifteen guineas for a head, twenty if with one hand, thirty for a half, and sixty for a whole length.

Kneller frequently drew his own portrait; my father had one, a head when young, and a small

one of the same age, very masterly; it is now mine. It was engraved by Becket. Another in a wig; by Smith. A half-length sent to the Tuscan gallery. A half-length in a brocaded waistcoat with his gold-chain; there ie a mezzotinto of it, adjoined to the Kit-cat-heads. Another head with a cap; a half-length presented to the gallery at Oxford, and a double piece of himself and his wife. Great numbers of his works have been engraved, particularly by Smith, who has more than done justice to them; the draperies are preferable to the originals. The first print taken from his works was by White of Charles II. He had an historic piece of his own painting before he went to Italy, Tobit and the angel. At his seat at Witton were many of his own works, sold some years after his death. He intended that Sir James Thornhill should paint the stair-case there, but hearing that Sir Isaac Newton was sitting to Thornhill, Kneller was offended, said, no portrait-painter should paint his house, and employed Laguerre.

Pope was not the only bard that soothed this painter's vain-glory. The most beautiful of Addison's poetic works was addressed to him: the singular happiness of the allusions, and applications of fabulous theology to the princes drawn by Kneller, is very remarkable:

Great Pan, who wont to chase the fair,
And love the spreading oak, was there,
For Charles II.—and for James,
Old Saturn too with upcast eyes
Beheld his abdicated skies.

And the rest on William and Mary, Anne, and George I. are all stamped with the most just resemblance.

Account of the life of Mr. Samuel Boyse.

MR. Samuel Boyse was the son of the reverend Mr. Joseph Boyse, a dissenting minister of great eminence in Dublin, much respected, not only for learning and abilities, but his extensive humanity and undissembled piety. During his ministerial charge at Dublin, he published many sermons, which compose several folio volumes, a few poems, and other tracts; but what chiefly distinguished him as a writer, was the controversy he carried on with Dr. King, archbishop of Dublin, and author of the *Origin of Evil*, concerning the office of a scriptural bishop. This controverted point was managed on both sides with great force of argument, and calmness of temper. The bishop asserted that the episcopal right of jurisdiction had its foundation in the New Testament: Mr. Boyse, consistent with his principles, denied that any ecclesiastical superiority appeared there, with the greatest candour and good manners. Samuel was born in 1708, and received the rudiments of his education in a private school in Dublin. When he was but eighteen years old, his father, who probably intended him for the ministry, sent him to the university of Glasgow, that he might finish his education there. He had not been a year at the university, when he fell in love with one Miss Atchenson, the daughter of a tradesman in that city, and was imprudent enough to interrupt his education, by marrying her, before he had entered into his 20th year. The natural extravagance of his temper soon exposed him to want, and as he had

had now the additional charge of a wife, his reduced circumſtances obliged him to quit the univerſity, and go over with his wife (who alſo carried a ſiſter with her) to Dublin; where they relied on the old gentleman for ſupport. Young Boyſe was of all men the furtheſt removed from a gentleman; he had no graces of perſon, and fewer ſtill of converſation. Never were three people of more libertine characters than young Boyſe, his wife, and ſiſter-in-law; yet the two ladies wore ſuch a maſk of decency before the old gentleman, that his fondneſs was never abated. The eſtate his father poſſeſſed in Yorkſhire was ſold to diſcharge his debts; and when the old man lay in his laſt ſickneſs, he was entirely ſupported by preſents from his congregation, and buried at their expence. We have no further account of Mr. Boyſe, till we find him ſoon after his father's death at Edinburgh. At this place his poetical genius raiſed him many friends, and ſome patrons of very great eminencc. He publiſhed a volume of poems, 1731, to which is ſubjoined *the tablature of Cebes*, and *A letter upon liberty*, inſerted in *the Dublin journal* 1726; and by theſe he obtained a very great reputation. They are addreſſed to the counteſs of Eglington. This amiable lady was patroneſs of all men of wit, and very much diſtinguiſhed Mr. Boyſe, while he reſided in that country. Upon the death of the viſcounteſs Stormont, Mr. Boyſe wrote an elegy, which was very much applauded by her ladyſhip's relations. This elegy he intitled, *The tears of the muſes*, as the deceaſed lady was a woman of the moſt refined taſte in the ſciences, and a great admirer of poetry. The lord Stormont was ſo much pleaſed with this mark of eſteem paid to the memory of his lady, that he ordered a very handſome preſent to be given to Mr. Boyſe, by his attorney at Edinburgh. The notice which lady Eglington and the lord Stormont took of our poet, recommended him likewiſe to the patronage of the ducheſs of Gordon, who was ſo ſolicitous to raiſe him above neceſſity, that ſhe employed her intereſt in procuring the promiſe of a place for him. She gave him a letter, which he was next day to deliver to one of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms at Edinburgh. It happened that he was then ſome miles diſtant from the city, and the morning on which he was to have rode to town with her grace's letter of recommendation proved to be rainy. This ſlender circumſtance was enough to diſcourage Boyſe, who never looked beyond the preſent moment; he declined going to town on account of the rainy weather, and while he let ſlip the opportunity, the place was beſtowed upon another, which the commiſſioner declared he kept for ſome time vacant, in expectation of ſeeing a perſon recommended by the ducheſs of Gordon. Boyſe at laſt, having defeated all the kind intentions of his patrons towards him, fell into contempt and poverty, which obliged him to quit Edinburgh. He communicated his deſign of going to London to the ducheſs of Gordon, who having ſtill a very high opinion of his poetical abilities, gave him a letter of recommendation to Mr. Pope, and obtained another for him to Sir Peter King, the lord chancellor of England. Lord

Stormont recommended him to the ſolicitor-general his brother, and many other perſons of the firſt faſhion. Upon receiving theſe letters, he, with great caution, quitted Edinburgh, regretted by none but his creditors. Upon his arrival in London, he went to Twickenham, in order to deliver the ducheſs of Gordon's letter to Mr. Pope; but that gentleman not being at home, Mr. Boyſe never gave himſelf the trouble to repeat his viſit. He wrote poems, but thoſe, though excellent in their kind, were loſt to the world, by being introduced with no advantage. He had ſo ſtrong a propenſity to groveling, that his acquaintance were generally of ſuch a caſt, as could be of no ſervice to him; and thoſe in higher life he addreſſed by letters, not having ſufficient confidence or politeneſs to converſe familiarly with them. Thus unfit to ſupport himſelf in the world, he was expoſed to variety of diſtreſſes, from which he could invent no means of extricating himſelf, but by writing mendicant letters. It will appear amazing, but impartiality obliges us to relate it, that this man, of ſo abject a ſpirit, was voluptuous and luxurious: he had no taſte for any thing elegant, and yet was to the laſt degree expenſive. Can it be believed, that often when he had received but a guinea, in conſequence of a ſupplicating letter, he would go into a tavern, order a ſupper to be prepared, drink of the richeſt wines, and ſpend all the money that had juſt been given him in charity, without having any one to participate the regale with him, and while his wife and child were ſtarving at home?

It was about the year 1740, that Mr. Boyſe, reduced to the laſt extremity of human wretchedneſs, had not a ſhirt, a coat, or any kind of apparel to put on; the ſheets in which he lay were carried to the pawnbroker's, and he was obliged to be confined to his bed, with no other covering than a blanket. He had little ſupport but what he got by writing letters to his friends in the moſt abject ſtyle, but was perhaps aſhamed to let this inſtance of his diſtreſs be known, which probably was the occaſion of his remaining ſix weeks in that ſituation. During this time he had ſome employment in writing verſes for the Magazines: and whoever had ſeen him in his ſtudy, muſt have thought the object ſingular enough; he ſat up in bed with the blanket wrapt about him, through which he had cut a hole large enough to admit his arm, and placing the paper upon his knee, ſcribbled in the beſt manner he could the verſes he was obliged to make: whatever he got by thoſe, or any other of his begging letters, was but juſt ſufficient for the preſervation of life. And perhaps he would have remained much longer in this diſtreſsful ſtate, had not a compaſſionate gentleman, upon hearing this circumſtance related, ordered his cloaths to be taken out of pawn, and enabled him to appear again abroad. This ſix weeks penance one would have imagined ſufficient to deter him for the future, from ſuffering himſelf to be expoſed to ſuch diſtreſſes; but by a long habit of want it grew familiar to him, and as he had leſs delicacy than other men, he was perhaps leſs affected with this exterior meanneſs. For

the future, whenever his diſtreſſes ſo preſſed, as to induce him to diſpoſe of his ſhirt, he fell upon an artificial method of ſupplying one. He cut ſome white paper in ſlips, which he tyed round his wriſts, and in the ſame manner ſupplied his neck. In this plight he frequently appeared abroad, with the additional inconvenience of the want of breeches.

About 1745 Mr. Boyſe's wife died. He was then at Reading, and pretended much concern when he heard of her death. It was an affectation in Mr. Boyſe to appear very fond of a little lap-dog, which he always carried about with him in his arms, imagining it gave him the air of a man of taſte. Boyſe, whoſe circumſtances were then too mean to put himſelf in mourning, was yet reſolved that ſome part of his family ſhould. He ſtepp'd into a little ſhop, purchaſed half a yard of black ribbon, which he fixed round his dog's neck by way of mourning for the loſs of its miſtreſs. As he had no ſpirit to keep good company, ſo he retired to ſome obſcure ale-houſe, and regaled himſelf with hot two-penny, which tho' he drank to exceſs, yet he had never more than a pennyworth of it at a time. At Reading his buſineſs was to compile a Review of the moſt material tranſactions at home and abroad, during the laſt war; in which he has included a ſhort account of the late rebellion. Upon his return from Reading, his behaviour was more decent than it had ever been before, and there were ſome hopes that a reformation, though late, would be wrought upon him. He was employed by a bookſeller to tranſlate *Fenelon on the exiſtence of God*, during which time he married a ſecond wife, a woman in low circumſtances, but well enough adapted to his taſte. He began now to live with more regard to his character, and ſupported a better appearance than uſual; but while his circumſtances were mending, and his irregular appetites loſing ground, his health viſibly declined: he had the ſatisfaction, while in this lingering illneſs, to obſerve a poem of his, intituled *The Deity*, recommended by two eminent writers, the ingenious Mr. Fielding, and the reverend Mr. James Hervey, author of *The meditations*. The former, in the beginning of his humorous hiſtory of *Tom Jones*, calls it an excellent poem. Mr. Hervey ſtyles it a pious and inſtructive piece; and that worthy gentleman, upon hearing that the author was in neceſſitous circumſtances, depoſited two guineas in the hands of a truſty perſon to be given him, whenever his occaſions ſhould preſs. The poem indeed abounds with ſhining lines and elevated ſentiments on the ſeveral attributes of the Supreme Being; but then it is without a plan, or any connexion of parts, for it may be read either backwards or forwards, as the reader pleaſes.

Mr. Boyſe's mind was often religiouſly diſpoſed; he frequently talked upon that ſubject, and probably ſuffered a great deal from the remorſe of his conſcience. The early impreſſions of his good education were never entirely obliterated, and his whole life was a continued ſtruggle between his will and reaſon, as he was always violating his duty to the one, while he fell under the ſubjection of

of the other. It was in conſequence of this war in his mind, that he wrote a beautiful poem called *The retantation*. In May 1749, he died in obſcure lodgings near Shoe-lane; but in ſentiments, there is the greateſt reaſon to believe, very different from theſe, in which he had ſpent the greateſt part of his life. An old acquaintance of his endeavoured to collect money to defray the expences of his funeral, ſo that the ſcandal of being buried by the pariſh might be avoided, but in vain: the remains of this ſon of the muſes were, with very little ceremony, hurried away by the pariſh officers. Never was a life ſpent with leſs grace, than that of Mr. Boyſe, and never were ſuch diſtinguiſhed abilities given to leſs purpoſe. His genius was not confined to poetry only, he had a taſte for painting, muſic, and heraldry, with the latter of which he was very well acquainted. His poetical pieces, if collected, would make ſix moderate volumes. Many of them are ſcattered in *The gentleman's magazine*, marked with the letter Y. and Alceus. Two volumes were publiſhed in London. An ode of his in the manner of Spenſer, entitled *The olive*, was addreſſed to Sir Robert Walpole, which procured him a preſent of ten guineas. He tranſlated a poem from the high Dutch of Van Haren, in praiſe of peace, upon the concluſion of that made at Aix la Chapelle; but the poem which procured him the greateſt reputation was, that upon the attributes of the Deity. He was employed by Mr. Ogle to tranſlate ſome of Chaucer's tales into modern Engliſh, which he performed with great ſpirit, and received at the rate of threepence a line for his trouble. Mr. Ogle publiſhed a complete edition of that old poet's *Canterbury tales modernized*; and Mr. Boyſe's name is put to ſuch tales as were done by him. In 1743 Mr. Boyſe publiſhed, without his name, an ode on the battle of Dettingen, entitled *Albion's triumph*.

Memoirs of the Rev. Mr. Charles Churchill.

THIS gentleman was the ſon of the Rev. Mr. Charles Churchill, curate and lecturer of St. John's in Weſtminſter; he was alſo educated in Weſtminſter-ſchool, and received ſome applauſe for his abilities from his tutors in that famous ſeminary. His capacity however was greater than his application, ſo that he received the character of a boy who could do good if he would. As the ſlighteſt accounts of perſons ſo noted are agreeable, it may not be amiſs to obſerve, that having one day got an exerciſe to make, and from idleneſs or inattention, having failed to bring it at the time appointed, his maſter thought proper to chaſtiſe him with ſome ſeverity, and even reproach his ſtupidity: what the fear of ſtripes could not effect, the fear of ſhame ſoon produced, and he brought his exerciſe the next day finiſhed in ſuch a manner, that he received the public thanks of all the maſters.

Still, however, it is to be ſuppoſed that his progreſs in the learned languages was but ſlow, nor is it to be wondered at, if we conſider

ſider how difficult it was for a ſtrong imagination, ſuch as he was poſſeſſed of, to conform and walk tamely forward in the trammels of a ſchool education: minds like his are ever ſtarting aſide after new purſuits, deſirous of embracing a multiplicity of amuſing objects, eager to come at the end without the painful inveſtigation of the means; and, if we may borrow a term from the mercantile world, a genius like his diſdaining the painful aſſiduity of earning knowledge by retail, aimed at being a wholeſale dealer in the treaſures of literature. This much was neceſſary to premiſe, in order to palliate his being refuſed admittance into the univerſity of Oxford, to which he was ſent by his father, for want of proper ſkill in the learned languages. He has often mentioned his repulſe upon that occaſion; but whether his juſtification of himſelf is to be admitted, we will not undertake to determine. Certain it is, that both he and his companions have often aſſerted, that he could have anſwered the college examination had he thought proper; but he ſo much deſpiſed the trifling queſtions that were put to him, that inſtead of making the proper replies, he only launched out in ſatyrical reflections upon the abilities of the gentleman whoſe office it was to judge of his.

Be this as it will, Mr. Churchill was rejected from Oxford, and probably this might have given occaſion to the frequent invectives we find in his works againſt that moſt reſpectable univerſity. Upon his returning from Oxford, he again applied himſelf to his ſtudies at Weſtminſter-ſchool; and there, at the age of ſeventeen, contracted an intimacy with the lady to whom he was married, and who ſtill ſurvives him. This was one of thoſe imprudent matches which generally begin in paſſion and end in diſguſt. However, the beginning of this young couple's regards for each other were mutual and ſincere, and ſo continued for ſeveral years after. At the uſual age for going into orders, Mr. Churchill was ordained by the late biſhop of London, notwithſtanding he had taken no degree, nor ſtudied in either of our univerſities; and the firſt place he had in the church, was a ſmall curacy of thirty pounds a year in Wales. To this remote part of the kingdom he brought his wife; they took a little houſe, and he went through the duties of his ſtation with chearfulneſs and aſſiduity. Happy had it been for him in this life, perhaps more happy in that to which he has been called, if he had ſtill continued here in piety, ſimplicity, and peace. His pariſhioners all loved and eſteemed him; his ſermons, though rather raiſed above the level of his audience, were however commended and followed. In order to eke out his ſcanty finances, he entered into a branch of trade which he thought might end in riches, but which involved him in debts that preſſed him for ſome years after: this was no other than keeping a cyder cellar, and dealing in this liquor through that part of the country. A poet is but ill qualified for merchandiſe, where ſmall gains are to be patiently expected, and carefully accumulated. He had neither patience for the one, nor œconomy for the other; and a ſort of rural bankruptcy was the conſequence of his attempt.

Upon

Upon leaving Wales, he came up to London, and his father ſoon after dying, he ſtept into the church in which he had officiated. In order to improve his ſcanty finances, which in this ſituation did not produce full an hundred pounds yearly, he undertook to teach young ladies to read and write Engliſh, and was employed for this purpoſe in the boarding ſchool of Mrs. Dennis, where he behaved with that decency and piety which became his profeſſion: nor ſhould we here omit paying proper deference to a mode of female education which ſeems new amongſt us. While in other ſchools our young miſſes are taught the arts of perſonal allurements only, this ſenſible governeſs pays the ſtricteſt attention to the minds of her young pupils, and endeavours to fit them for the domeſtic duties of life, with as much aſſiduity as they are elſewhere formed to levity and ſplendor.

While Mr. Churchill was in this ſituation, his method of living bearing no proportion to his income, ſeveral debts were contracted in the city, which he was not in a capacity of paying; and a gaol, the continual terror of indigent genius, ſeemed now ready to cloſe upon his miſeries. From this wretched ſtate of uneaſineſs he was relieved by the benevolence of Mr. Loyd, father to the poet of that name, who paid his debts, or at leaſt ſatisfied his creditors.

In the mean time, while Mr. Loyd, the father, was thus relieving Churchill by his bounty, Mr. Loyd the ſon began to excite him by his example. *The Actor*, a poetical epiſtle, written by this gentleman, and addreſſed to Mr. Bonnel Thornton, was read and reliſhed by all the judges of poetical merit, and gave the author a diſtinguiſhed place among the writers of his age. Mr. Churchill ſoon undertook to write the *Roſciad*, a work tho' upon a more confined plan, yet more adapted to excite public curioſity. It firſt came out without the name of the author; but the juſtneſs of its remarks, and particularly the ſeverity of the ſatire, ſoon excited public curioſity. Though he never diſowned his having written this piece, and even openly gloried in it; yet the public, unwilling to give ſo much merit to one alone, aſcribed it to a combination of wits: nor were Meſſrs. Loyd, Thornton, or Coleman left unnamed upon this occaſion. This miſplaced praiſe ſoon induced Mr. Churchill to throw off the maſk, and the ſecond edition appeared with his name at length; and now the fame, which before was diffuſed upon many objects, became centered to a point. As the *Roſciad* was the firſt of this poet's performances, ſo many are of opinion that it is his beſt; and indeed I am inclined to concur in the ſame ſentiment. In it we find a very cloſe and minute diſcuſſion of the particular merit of each performer; their defects pointed out with candour, and their merits praiſed without adulation. This poem, however, ſeems to be one of thoſe few works which are injured by ſucceeding editions: when he became popular, his judgment began to grow drunk with applauſe; and we find, in the later editions, men blamed whoſe merit is inconteſtible, and others praiſed that were at that time in no degree of eſteem with the judicious, and whom, at preſent, even the mob are beginning to forſake.

His next performance was his *Apology to the Critical reviewers*: this

this work is not without its peculiar merit; and as it was written againſt a ſet of critics whom the world was willing enough to blame, the public read it with their uſual indulgence. In this performance he ſhewed a peculiar happineſs of throwing his thoughts, if we may ſo expreſs it, into poetical paragraphs; ſo that the ſentence ſwells to the break or concluſion, as we find in proſe.

His fame being greatly extended by theſe productions, his improvement in morals did not ſeem by any means to correſpond: but while his writings amuſed the town, his actions in ſome meaſure diſguſted it. He now quitted his wife, with whom he had cohabited for many years, and reſigning his gown, and all clerical functions, commenced a complete *man of the town*, got drunk, frequented ſtews, and giddy with falſe praiſe, thought his talents a ſufficient atonement for all his follies. Some people have been unkind enough to ſay, that Mrs. Churchill gave the firſt juſt cauſe of ſeparation, but nothing can be more falſe than this rumour; and we can aſſure the public, that her conduct in private life, and among her acquaintances, was ever irreproachable.

In ſome meaſure to palliate the abſurdities of his conduct, he now undertook a poem called *Night*, written upon a general ſubject indeed, but upon falſe principles; namely, that whatever our follies are, we ſhould never undertake to conceal them. This, and Mr. Churchill's other poems, being ſhewn to Mr. Johnſon, and his opinion being aſked concerning them, he allowed them but little merit; which being told to the author, he reſolved to requite this private opinion with a public one. In his next poem therefore of the *Ghoſt*, he has drawn this gentleman under the character of Pompoſo; and thoſe who diſliked Mr. Johnſon, allowed it to have merit. But our poet is now dead, and juſtice may be heard without the imputation of envy; though we entertain no ſmall opinion of Mr. Churchill's abilities, yet they are neither of a ſize nor correctneſs to compare with thoſe of the author of the Rambler; a work which has, in ſome places, enlarged the circle of moral enquiry, and fixed more preciſe landmarks to guide philoſophy in her inveſtigation of truth. Mr. Johnſon's only reply to Mr. Churchill's abuſe was, that he thought him a ſhallow fellow in the beginning, and that he could ſay nothing worſe of him ſtill.

The poems of *Night*, and of the *Ghoſt*, had not the rapid ſale the author expected; but his *Prophecy of Famine* ſoon made ample amends for the late paroxyſm in his fame. *Night* was written upon a general ſubject, and for that reaſon no way alluring; the *Ghoſt* was written in eight ſyllable verſe, in which kind of meaſure he was not very ſucceſsful; but the *Prophecy of Famine* had all thoſe circumſtances of time, place, and party to recommend it, that the author could deſire; or, let us uſe the words of Mr. Wilkes, who ſaid, before its publication, that he was ſure it muſt take, as it was at once perſonal, poetical, and political. It had accordingly a rapid and an extenſive ſale; and it was often aſſerted by his admirers, that Mr. Churchill was a better poet than Mr. Pope. This exaggerated adulation,

lation, as it had before corrupted his morals, now began to impair his mind; several succeeding pieces were published, which being written without effort, are read without pleasure. His *Gotham*, *Independence*, *The Times*, seem merely to be written by a man who desired to avail himself of the avidity of the public curiosity in his favour, and are rather aimed at the pockets than the hearts of his readers.

How shall I trace this thoughtless man through the latter part of his conduct; in which, leaving all the milder forms of life, he became entirely guided by his native turbulence of temper, and permitted his mind to harrass his body thro' all the various modes of debauchery. His seducing a young lady, and afterwards living with her in shameless adultery; his beating a man formerly his friend, without any previous provocation, are well known. Yet let us not be severe in judging; happy were it for him, perhaps, if ours were the only tribunal at which he was to plead for those irregularities, which his mental powers rendered but more culpable.

Memoirs of Mr. William Hogarth.

THE ingenious man who makes the subject of this slight memoir, was one of those whose life affords little variety to the historian, and whose chief history lies in that of his own productions. But not to be entirely silent upon a subject which affords more to raise than gratify curiosity, we may observe, that Mr. Hogarth was born in London, in the parish of St. Bartholomew; to which he was afterwards, as far as lay in his power, a benefactor.

His father, being one of the lower orders of tradesmen, had no higher views for his son than binding him apprentice to an engraver of pewter pots, which, it must be owned, is, of all species of the painting art, the lowest. In this humble situation Hogarth wrought through his apprenticeship, and seemed, through the whole of his time, to have no higher views than those of his contemptible employment.

Upon leaving his apprenticeship, he resolved upon higher aims, and pursued every method of improving himself in the art of drawing, of which his former master had given him but a very rude conception. The ambition of the poor is ever productive of distress; so it was with Hogarth, who, while he was furnishing materials for his subsequent excellence, felt all that contempt and indigence could produce. I have heard it from an intimate friend of his, that being one day arrested, for so trifling a sum as twenty shillings, and being bailed by one of his friends, in order to be revenged of the woman who arrested him (for it was his landlady), he drew her picture as ugly as possible, or, as painters express it, in *Caricatura*; and in that single figure gave marks of the dawn of superior genius.

How long he continued in this state of indigence and obscurity, I cannot learn; but the first time he distinguished himself as a painter, was in the *Figures of the Wandsworth Assembly*. These are drawn from the life, and without any circumstances of his burlesque manner. The faces are said to be extremely

extremely like, and the colouring is rather better than in ſome of his beſt ſubſequent pieces. But we muſt obſerve in general of this excellent painter, that his colouring is dry and diſpleaſing, and that he could never get rid of the appellation of a *maneriſt*, which was given him early in life. His next piece was probably that excellent picture of the *Pool of Betheſda*, which he preſented to St. Bartholomew's hoſpital, in which pariſh, as we have already ſaid, he was born.

We have hitherto only ſeen him in grave hiſtory paintings; a walk in which he has many competitors; but he ſoon launched out into an unbeaten track, in which he excelled all that ever came before, or have ſince ſucceeded him. His being firſt employed to draw deſigns for a new edition of Hudibras, was the inlet to his future excellence in the burleſque. We mean in his life pictures, for ſuch we will venture to call them. It is unjuſt to give theſe the character either of burleſque or groteſque pieces, ſince both the one and the other convey to us a departure from nature, to which Hogarth almoſt always ſtrictly adhered. The work of this kind, which firſt appeared, was his *Harlot's Progreſs*. The ingenious Abbé Du Bos has often complained, that no hiſtory painter of his time went through a ſeries of actions, and thus, like an hiſtorian, painted the ſucceſſive fortunes of an hero from the cradle to the grave. What Du Bos wiſhed to ſee done, Hogarth performed. He launches out his young adventurer a ſimple girl upon the town, and conducts her through all the viciſſitudes of wretchedneſs to a premature death. This was painting to the reaſon and to the heart: none had ever before made the art ſubſervient to the purpoſes of morality and inſtruction; a book like this is fitted to every ſoil and every obſerver, and he that runs may read.

The *Rake's Progreſs* ſucceeded the former, which, though not equal to it, came ſhort only of that ſingle excellence, in which no other could come near him that way. His great excellence conſiſted in what we may term the furniture of his pieces; for as in ſublime ſubjects, and hiſtory pieces, the fewneſs of little circumſtances capable of taking the ſpectator's attention from the principal figures, is reckoned a merit; ſo in life-painting, a great variety of thoſe little domeſtic images gives the whole a greater degree of force and reſemblance. Thus in the *Harlot's Progreſs* we are not diſpleaſed with James Dalton's wig-box on the bed-teſter of her lodgings in Drury lane; particularly too if it be remembered, that this James Dalton was a noted highwayman of that time. In the pieces of *Marriage Alamode*, what can be more finely or ſatirically conceived, than his introducing a gouty lord, who carries his pride even into his infirmities, and has his very crutches marked with a coronet.

But a comment or panegyric on pictures is of all ſubjects the moſt diſpleaſing; and yet the life before us offers little elſe. We may indeed, in the manner of biographers, obſerve that he travelled to Paris for improvement; but ſcarce any circumſtance remains by which he was diſtinguiſhed in this journey from the reſt of mankind who

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go thither without design, and return without remark. Perhaps his general character of the French may be thought worth remembering; which was, that their houses were *gilt and b—t.*

About the year 1750 he published his *Analysis of Beauty*, which, though it was strongly opposed, yet was replete with those strokes which ever characterise the works of genius. In this performance he shews, by a variety of examples, that round swelling figures are most pleasing to the eye; and the truth of this has of late been further confirmed by an ingenious writer on the same subject.

Little else remains of the circumstances of this admirable man's life, except his late contest with Mr. Churchill: the circumstances of this are too recent in every memory to be repeated. It is well known that both met at Westminster-hall; Hogarth, to catch a ridiculous likeness of the poet; and Churchill, to furnish a natural description of the painter. Hogarth's picture of Churchill was but little esteemed, and Churchill's letter to Hogarth has died with the subject; some pretend, however, to say, that it broke the latter's heart; but this we can, from good authority, say is not true; indeed, the report falls of itself; for we may as well say, that Hogarth's pencil was as efficacious as the poet's pen, since neither long survived the contest.

An account of James Woodhouse, the poetical shoe-maker, whose works have been lately published.

THIS extraordinary person is about 28 years of age, and has a wife and several small children, whom he endeavours to maintain by great application to his business, and by teaching children to read and write, which is all the learning he ever received himself, being taken from school at seven years old.

He lives at the village of Rowley, near Hales-Owen, about seven miles from Birmingham in Staffordshire, and two miles from an estate of the late Mr. William Shenstone, called the Leasowes.

After he was taken from school he had no means of gratifying his insatiable thirst after reading and knowledge but by procuring the magazines with such little perquisites as he could pick up, till about five years ago, when an accident brought him acquainted with Mr. Shenstone.

That gentleman, who, by improving nature with a true taste of her beauties, has rendered the Leasowes the admiration of all who have seen the place, used to suffer his delightful walks to be open to every body, till the mischief that was done by the thoughtless, or the malicious, obliged him to exclude all but such as should have his special permission on a proper application for that purpose. Woodhouse, who was more a loser by this prohibition than almost any other person whom it excluded, applied to Mr. Shenstone, for leave to indulge his imagination among the scenes, which had so often delighted him before, by a copy of verses. This immediately procured him the liberty he solicited, and introduced him to Mr. Shenstone himself. The poem appeared to be so extraordinary for a person in so obscure a station, who had

had been taken from a ſchool at ſeven years old, and had ſince read nothing but magazines, that he offered him the uſe not only of his garden, but his library.

Woodhouſe, however, did not ſuffer his love of poetry or his deſire of knowledge to intrude upon the duties of his ſtation: as his work employed only his hands, and left his mind at liberty, he uſed to place a pen and ink at his ſide, while the laſt was in his lap, and when he had made a couplet he wrote it down on his knee; his ſeaſons for reading, he borrowed not from thoſe which others of his rank uſually devote to tipling, or ſkittles, but from the hours that would otherwiſe have been loſt in ſleep.

The verſification of this extraordinary writer is remarkably harmonious, his language is pure, his images poetical, and his ſentiments uncommonly tender and elegant.

His poem to Mr. Shenſtone was written when he was about three and twenty; and tho' in the character of a ſuitor, and with a proper ſenſe of the inferiority of his ſtation, yet there is a conſciouſneſs of that equality of nature, which petitioners and dedicators too often proſtitute or forget.

After an addreſs to Mr. Shenſtone, in which he encourages himſelf by conſidering the general kindneſs of his character, he ſays:

Shall he, benevolent as wiſe, diſdain
The muſe's ſuitor, tho' a ſandal'd ſwain?
Tho' no auſpicious rent-rolls grace my line,
I boaſt the ſame original divine:
Tho' niggard fate with-held her ſordid ore,
Yet lib'ral nature gave her better ſtore;
Whoſe influence early did my mind inſpire
To read her works, and praiſe her mighty Sire.

A copy of this poem, and of another addreſſed to the ſame gentleman, were ſent by Mr. Shenſtone's direction, with ſome manuſcript poems of his own, to a friend in London; this friend ſhewed them to ſome of his acquaintance, and a ſmall collection was made for the author, which produced an ode on Benevolence: By this ode he appears to have profited by Mr. Shenſtone's library, for he talks of Palladian ſkill, Sappho's art, Phidias's chiſſel, and the pencil of Titian. But his force of thought, and ſkill in poetical expreſſion, appear to greater advantage in a poem of 50 ſtanzas, each conſiſting of 4 verſes, intituled Spring: this contains a ſtriking picture of the infelicities of his ſituation, and the keenneſs and delicacy of his ſenſations.

After regretting the vacant chearfulneſs of his earlier days, before domeſtic connections condemned him to inceſſant labour, and abſorbed him in care and ſolitude, he exhibits this picture of the pain and pleaſure that are mingled in his conjugal and paternal character.

But now domeſtic cares employ
And buſy ev'ry ſenſe,
Nor leave one hour of grief or joy,
But's furniſh'd out from thence:
Save what my little babes afford,
Whom I behold with glee,
When ſmiling at my humble board
Or prattling on my knee.

Not that my Daphne's charms are flown,
These ſtill new pleaſures bring;
'Tis theſe inſpire content alone;
'Tis all I've left of Spring.

There is ſomething extremely pathetic in the laſt verſe; and the firſt of the next ſtanza, where he mentions his wife as endeared to him by her ſenſibility and diſtreſs, is ſtill more ſtriking.

The dew-drop ſparkling in her eye,
The lily on her breaſt,
The roſe-buds on her lips ſupply,
My rich, my ſweet repaſt.

He that can feel the following, will need no aſſiſtance to diſcover their beauty, and to him, who cannot, no aſſiſtance will be effectual.

I wiſh not, dear connubial ſtate,
To break thy ſilken bands;
I only blame relentleſs fate
That every hour demands.

Nor mourn I much my taſk auſtere
Which endleſs wants impoſe;
But oh! it wounds my ſoul to hear
My Daphne's melting woes.

For oft ſhe ſighs, and oft ſhe weeps,
And hangs her penſive head:
While blood her furrow'd finger ſteeps,
And ſtains the paſſing thread.

When orient hills the ſun behold,
Our labours are begun;
And when he ſtreaks the Weſt with gold,
The taſk is ſtill undone.

This poem, with thoſe before mentioned, and ſome others, are publiſhed in one volume in quarto, at the price of 3s. for the author's benefit; and if any of our readers ſhall be excited by this extract, at once to reward ingenuity, and aſſiſt induſtry to ſtruggle with diſtreſs, the author of theſe extracts will participate with them in the higheſt and pureſt of all pleaſures, that of communicating happineſs to an ingenious and worthy mind.

Some account of the late learned George Pſalmanazar, the reputed Formoſan and convert to Chriſtianity. (*See his will in our laſt volume, p.* 43.)

PSalmanazar was undoubtedly a Frenchman born: He had his education firſt in a free-ſchool, taught by two Franciſcan monks, and afterwards in a college of Jeſuits in an archiepiſcopal city, the name of which, as alſo thoſe of his birth-place and of his parents, remain yet impenetrable ſecrets. Upon leaving the college, he was recommended as a tutor to young gentlemen; but ſoon fell into a mean rambling kind of life, that produced him plenty of diſappointments and misfortunes. The firſt pretence, he took up with, was, that of being a ſufferer for religion. He Procured a certificate of his being an Iriſhman who had left his country for the ſake of the Roman catholic religion, and was going on a pilgrimage to Rome. It was neceſſary, indeed, that he ſhould be equipped in the proper garb of a pilgrim; but not being in a condition to purchaſe one, though it conſiſted only of a long ſtaff handſomely turned, and a ſhort leathern or oil-cloth cloak, he betook himſelf to the following ſtra-

ſtratagem: In a chapel dedicated to a miraculous ſaint, he had obſerved ſuch an one hung up as a monument of gratitude by ſome wandering pilgrim, arrived at the end of his journey; and though this chapel was never without a number of devotees, who prayed and burnt tapers before the image of the ſaint, he was not deterred from venturing in, and taking both ſtaff and cloak away, at noon-day: He eſcaped without any enquiry after him, carried off the booty unmoleſted, made haſte to a private corner, threw the cloak about his ſhoulders, and ſtalked, in all ſanctified gravity, with the ſtaff in his hand, till he got out of the city: "Being thus accoutred (ſays he) and furniſhed with a proper paſs, I began, at all proper places, to beg my way in a fluent Latin, accoſting only clergymen, or perſons of figure, by whom I could be underſtood, and found them moſtly ſo generous and credulous, that I might eaſily have ſaved money, and put myſelf into a much better dreſs before I had gone a ſcore or two of miles; but ſo powerful was my vanity and extravagance, that as ſoon as I had got, what I thought a ſufficient viaticum, I begged no more, but viewed every thing worth ſeeing, and then retired to ſome inn, where I ſpent my money as freely as I had obtained it." He tells us, that he frequently met with objects that made him ſhrink. In lonely places the carcaſes of men rotting and ſtinking, by the way ſide, faſtened with ropes round their necks to poſts: Theſe were diſbanded ſoldiers and ſailors, who uſed, after the peace of Ryſwick, to infeſt the roads, and were, in conſequence, hung up by ſcores at a time, and thus expoſed *in terrorem*. At other places were to be met ſmall croſſes with inſcriptions, "Pray for the ſoul of A B that was found murdered on this ſpot." At the age of ſixteen, when he was in Germany, he fell upon the wild project of paſſing for a Formoſan. He recollected, that he had heard the Jeſuits ſpeak much of China and Japan, and was raſh enough to think that what he wanted of a right knowledge, he might make up by the ſtrength of a pregnant invention, which here, it muſt be confeſſed, found ample ſcope to work in. He ſet himſelf to form a new character and language, a grammar, a diviſion of the year into twenty months, a new religion, and what not! His alphabet was written from right to left, like the oriental tongues; and he ſoon inured his hand to write it with great readineſs. He now thought himſelf ſufficiently prepared to paſs for a Japaneſe converted to chriſtianity: He altered his Avignon certificate as well as he could, reaſſumed his old pilgrim's habit, and began his tour, though with a heavy heart, to the Low Countries. Under the pretence of being a Japaneſe converted by ſome Jeſuit miſſionaries, and brought to Avignon to be farther inſtructed by them, as well as to avoid the dreadful puniſhment inflicted on converts by the emperor of Japan, he travelled ſeveral hundred leagues with an appearance, however, ſo diſmal, and ſhabby, as to exceed even the very common beggars. His affairs now grew from

bad to worſe: Want ſorely pinched him, and an inveterate itch added to all his other misfortunes. This, however, he rather looked upon as a merciful diſpenſation, inaſmuch as it proved the means of preſerving him from the baſe deſigns of certain procureſſes, who, wandering about the ſtreets of Brabant and Flanders, picked up likely youths, in order to make a lewd trade of them. Pſalmanazar, very young, ſanguine, and agreeable, was ſometimes led by them in a ſeeming hoſpitable manner to certain charitable ladies, to receive, as was pretended, ſome tokens of their generoſity; but in reality, that he might make a leſs commendable return to the benefactreſs: "But my diſtemper, ſays he, proved too diſguſtful a bar for me ever to be put to the trial."—At Liege he enliſted into the Dutch ſervice, and was carried by his officer to Aix-la-Chapelle. He afterwards entered into the elector of Cologne's ſervice; where the debauched lives of his comrades, in the ſoldiery, extinguiſhing completely the faint traces of religion; and being ſtill as ambitious as ever to paſs for a Japaneſe, he now choſe to profeſs himſelf an unconverted or heatheniſh one, rather than what he had hitherto pretended to be, a convert to chriſtianity; and freely entered the liſts againſt prieſts and monks, who were aſſiduouſly and publicly endeavouring to convince him of his ſuppoſed errors. The laſt garriſon he came to was Sluys, where brigadier Lauder, a Scotch colonel, introduced him to the chaplain, with whom he was admitted to have a conference, and which, at length, ended in our chaplain's fervent zeal to make a convert of him, by way of recommending, as it afterwards turned out, himſelf to the then biſhop of London, whoſe piety could not fail of rewarding ſo worthy an action. By this time, Pſalmanazar, growing tired of the ſoldier's life, liſtened cordially to the chaplain's propoſal of taking him over to England, and he was, accordingly, with great hurry, baptized. No charitable deſign of converting a ſoul appeared to be the ruling motive to this piece of ſolemn mockery; for he was ſo far from believing our young impoſtor to be what he pretended, that he had juſt before taken the moſt effectual methods to convince himſelf of the contrary, beyond all poſſibility of doubting. A letter of invitation from the biſhop of London arriving, they ſet out for Rotterdam, were introduced there to the celebrated Mr. Baſnage, and the Engliſh and French proteſtant churches. Pſalmanazar was, in general, much careſſed there; but ſome there were, who put ſuch ſhrewd queſtions to him, as carried an air of their not giving all the credit he could have wiſhed. This threw him upon a whimſical expedient by way of removing all obſtacles, viz. that of living upon raw fleſh, roots, and herbs; and he ſoon habituated himſelf, he tells us, to this new and ſtrange food, without receiving the leaſt prejudice to his health; taking care to add a good deal of pepper and ſpices by way of concoctors, whilſt the people's aſtoniſhment at his diet ſerved him for ſauce of no contemptible reliſh. At his arrival in London he was introduced to our good biſhop,

was received with great humanity, and ſoon found a large number of friends among the well-diſpoſed both of clergy and laity. "But (ſays he) I had a much greater number of oppoſers to combat with, who, though they judged rightly of me in the main, were far from being candid in their account of the diſcovery they pretended to make to my diſadvantage; particularly doctors Halley, Mead and Woodward. The too viſible eagerneſs of theſe gentlemen to expoſe me at any rate for a cheat, ſerved only to make others think the better of me, and even to look upon me as a kind of confeſſor; eſpecially as thoſe gentlemen were thought to be no great admirers of revelation, to which my patrons thought I had given ſo ample a teſtimony." His complexion, which happened to be very fair, was an unanſwerable objection againſt his being of Formoſa, which lies under the tropic: But he ſoon hatched a lucky diſtinction between thoſe whoſe buſineſs expoſes them to the ſun, and thoſe who keep at home, or under ground, without feeling the leaſt degree of the reigning heat. On the other hand, his oppoſers were as much at a loſs to find out his real country by his pronunciation of any of the languages he was maſter of. Dr. Mead took upon him to be very poſitive that he was of German or Dutch extraction; "But he might as well (ſays Pſalmanazar) have affirmed me to have been an Ethiopian from my complexion." As to his moral character, ſcandalous falſehoods were ſoon diſperſed abroad, and crimes imputed to him that he was naturally averſe to. On the other hand, the exact care he took of his behaviour and converſation, the plainneſs of his dreſs and diet, the little trouble he gave himſelf about wealth and preferment, and his reſervedneſs to the fair ſex; the warmth he expreſſed for religion, and the delight he was obſerved to take in the public offices of it, were, to his friends, convincing proofs of his ſincerity. A variety of judgments was formed, even among thoſe who thought him a cheat. Thoſe of the church of Rome believed he was bribed to the impoſture by ſome Engliſh miniſters, in order to expoſe their church: The proteſtants in Holland thought he was hired to explode predeſtination, and to cry up the epiſcopacy of England, in derogation of the preſbyterian government: Some repreſented him as a Jeſuit in diſguiſe, others as a tool of the nonjurors, among whom he had been introduced by his old friend the chaplain, who, by way of advancing his own fortune, introduced him alſo to all the great men in church and ſtate. Before he had been three months in London, he was ſo cried up for a prodigy, that every body was deſirous of ſeeing him; and to this the public prints, foreign as well as domeſtic, contributed, by blazing forth things in his praiſe, for which there was not the leaſt foundation. He was preſently ſet to tranſlate the church catechiſm into the Formoſan language; it was received by the biſhop of London with candour, the author rewarded with generoſity, and his catechiſm laid up among the moſt curious manuſcripts. It was examined by the learned, who found it regular and

grammatical, and gave it as their opinion, that it was a real language, and no counterfeit. After such success, our author was soon prevailed upon to write the well-known history of Formosa, which soon after appeared. A task so arduous and dangerous did not startle our young adventurer; though scarce twenty years old, and an entire stranger to these countries, he undertook it without hesitation. The booksellers were so earnest with him to dispatch it, whilst the town was hot in expectation of it, that he was scarcely allowed two months to write the whole, notwithstanding the almost constant avocations from visitors at home, and invitations abroad. The first edition had not been long published before a second was called for. In the interim, he was sent by the good bishop to Oxford to pursue such studies as he was most inclined to, whilst his opposers and advocates in London were disputing about the merits and demerits of his book.—The learned at Oxford were not less divided in their opinions of our author. A convenient apartment was, however, assigned him in one of the colleges: He had all the advantages of learning the university could afford him, and a learned tutor to assist him. Here, to make a show of retrieving the time wasted abroad in the day-time in company, he used to light his candle, and let it burn the greatest part of the night in his study, that his neighbours might believe he was plying his books; and sleeping in his easy chair, would often leave the bed for a whole week just as he found it, to the great surprise of his bed-maker. He pretended soon to have swelled legs, which his friends failed not to account for, kindly intreating him to submit to more regular hours of rest; but he continued to go limping about like a gouty old fellow, though no one enjoyed a better share of health, or flow of spirits. Upon his return to London, he continued, for about ten years, to indulge a course of idleness and extravagance, with some sort of gallantry with the ladies, among whom (some of them persons of fortune and character) he became a great favourite. During this time, a scheme was proposed to him, which he was to father, of getting money by a white sort of Japan, the art of which was supposed to be brought by him from Formosa. But this, and several others, proved of short duration. The behaviour of his friends, and the objections they now began to make, put our adventurer upon thinking that they had a less charitable opinion of him than formerly, and that it was time to think of getting into some reputable employment, before the subscriptions, which the benevolent had long afforded him, should be withdrawn. Some absurdities, however, observed in his history of Formosa, in the end effectually discredited the whole relation, and saved him the trouble, and his friends the mortification, of an open confession of his guilt. He seemed, through a long course of life, to abhor the imposture, yet contented himself with owning it to his most intimate friends.

Psalmanazar's

Pſalmanazar's learning and ingenuity, during the remainder of his life, did not fail to procure him a comfortable ſubſiſtence from his pen; he was concerned in compiling and writing works of credit, and lived exemplarily for many years. His death happened in 1763. In his laſt will and teſtament, dated Jan. 1, 1762, he declares that he had long ſince diſclaimed, even publicly, all but the ſhame and guilt of his vile impoſition; and orders his body to be buried, wherever he happens to die, in the day-time, and in the loweſt and cheapeſt manner. "It is my earneſt requeſt, ſays he, that my body be not incloſed in any kind of coffin, but only decently laid in what is commonly called a ſhell, of the loweſt value, and without lid or other covering which may hinder the natural earth from covering it all around."

An account of the Marquis de Fratteaux, who, in the Year 1752, was clandeſtinely ſeized and carried off from England, by a gentleman who had an opportunity of being an eye-witneſs of the whole tranſaction, and was intimately connected with the marquis's family.

MOnſieur Bertin de Bourdeille, the marquis's father, was twice married; and had by his two wives three ſons; the marquis de Fratteaux by his firſt wife; and by his ſecond, Monſieur Bertin, now biſhop of Vannes, and M. Bertin de Bourdeille, at preſent miniſter of ſtate in France. Old M. Bertin is a gentleman of a very good family, and maſter of requeſts: he is a man of genius, a great enterprizer, a great calculator, and very devout, but immenſely avaritious. He never rendered himſelf remarkable by any extraordinary act of patriotiſm; but on the other hand, he ſo increaſed his wealth, and turned his money to ſo good an account, that he may be eſteemed one of the richeſt gentlemen in France. The marquis, his ſon, is very captious, very brave, and very expenſive, with very little judgement; his younger brothers are very ſenſible, very devout, and have great œconomy without any avarice. The character of the marquis being ſo very different from thoſe of his father and brothers, it was ſaid (but I do not vouch it as a fact) the father declared publicly, that his child was changed at nurſe, and the marquis conſequently was not his ſon, but that he perceived the deception too late to be able to prove it judicially; certain however it is, that the marquis was never loved as a ſon.

The marquis, having engaged in the army, was a captain of horſe at the peace of 1748, and then retired to Paris, to live according to his income, but his debts, and the ſmallneſs of his pay, did not permit him to make any figure: his creditors and himſelf jointly addreſſed his father to pay his debts, and ſet him clear, but the old gentleman was long deaf upon that ſubject, till at length, by dint of entreaties, he gave him a rent charge of 3000 livres [about 131 l. 5 s. ſterling] a year, and alſo the marquiſate of Fratteaux,

which might produce about 1000 livres [about 43 l. 15 s. ſterling] more; but not being able to pay all his debts with this income, he ſold his commiſſion, and gave the produce to his creditors.

The father immediately purchaſed the place of a maſter of requeſts for his youngeſt ſon, Bertin de Bourdeille; bought him a grand houſe in Paris, in the ſtreet called La Rüe de Hazard, and furniſhed it magnificently; paid for his equipage and domeſtics; and gave him 50,000 livres [2187 l. 10 s.] a year for his table expences. Soon after this, he and his ſon, the maſter of requeſts, by their intereſts procured the biſhoprick of Vannes for the other brother, who was at that time vicar-general to the biſhop of Perigueux, built him an epiſcopal palace, and paid all the expences of his bulls from the pope, &c. Thus the poor marquis, the eldeſt ſon and heir apparent of the family, lodged in a ready furniſhed chamber, eat from a cook's ſhop, and trudged on foot; while his younger brothers had their ſuperb palaces, kept open tables, and ſplaſhed their elder brother with their coaches as he walked the ſtreets. This behaviour of the father ſoon turned the few brains of the marquis, who quitted Paris, and went and ſhut himſelf up in his caſtle at Fratteaux.

Bourdeille, where old M. Bertin dwelt, was half way between Fratteaux and Perigueux, the capital of the province, where the father and the marquis often went; yet they never viſited nor ſpoke to each other, but even ſhunned meeting together. But the marquis talked loudly of his father's ill treatment of him.

While things were in this ſituation, a regiment of horſe came to garriſon the province, and part of them were ſent to Perigueux; this cauſed the marquis to go thither more frequently than before; and it is reported that the father had been told that the M. de Fratteaux had gained over ſome cavaliers to ſhoot him through the head, in a little foreſt between Bourdeille and Perigueux; and that the marquis being advertiſed of a certain day when his father was to paſs that way, had ſent his friends to way-lay him; but the father prevented the execution of their deſign, by taking the road to Vannes (to communicate this to his ſon the biſhop) in the room of his former route. Be that as it will, the father and the biſhop went together to Paris, to the other ſon, the maſter of requeſts, to concert the proper methods to get hold of the marquis; and they obtained a lettre de cachet to confine him in the neareſt fort to that province, which order was ſoon put in execution.

The public ſoon learned the news of the marquis having been ſeized, and every one cried out againſt the father, eſpecially the nobility of that province, who are very numerous: they were ignorant of the marquis's attempt, if any attempt of the kind had ever been made, on the life of his father, and only attributed the cauſe to the indiſcretions of the marquis towards his father, who, they thought had carried his vengeance too far againſt his own child.

The

The nobleſſe of the province formed a project to deliver the marquis from his confinement. A large aſſociation was made, which was very ſecretly kept; and they aſſembled at an appointed day at a neighbouring place in the foreſt. That no one might have any ſuſpicion of their deſign, they cloathed themſelves in the uniform of the marachauſſé, and carried with them a man bound and fettered like a criminal, with a pretended order from the king. Thus prepared they came to the fort, diſtributing themſelves ſo as to hinder the centinels from oppoſing them, or from alarming the main guard: they then knocked at the gate, and being let in, told the gaoler he muſt put the pretended criminal in the ſame place with the marquis de Fratteaux. The gaoler accordingly carried the criminal, accompanied with theſe pretended officers of the marachauſſé, to the very chamber where the marquis was; upon which, clapping a piſtol to the gaoler's head, they forbid him to ſpeak a word on pain of death: they then took the marquis with them, and ſhutting all the gaolers into the priſon, and carrying all the keys away with them, they got ſafe to the foreſt.

This affair made no noiſe, nor was it enquired after, becauſe ſome of the nobleſt families of France were in the plot; but the marquis would have been ſoon retaken, had he not got immediately into Spain. On his arrival at Madrid he waited on the biſhop of Rennes, who was at that time ambaſſador from France to that court, and was received as his rank required. He gave the biſhop a diſtinct account of his misfortunes, and beſought him to mediate between him and his father, which the biſhop immediately undertook, and wrote accordingly to court. But how was the good man ſurpriſed when he received, for anſwer, expreſs orders not to permit the marquis to viſit him. The biſhop ſent at midnight to deſire the marquis would come no more to him, for reaſons which he could not be ignorant of, and which he begged leave to be excuſed from repeating, and adviſed him privately not to ſtay above a week at fartheſt in Spain, or his perſon would not be in ſafety. The marquis took his friendly advice, and without any further information ſet out the next day for England, where he arrived ſhortly after.

It is the cuſtom in France to paſs over in ſilence many affairs, of which the too cloſe examination would produce fatal conſequences. When they are thoroughly acquainted with any deſigns, they are careful to prevent them, and wait, though it ſhould be a long time, for a favourable opportunity to puniſh the authors of them. Some days before the battle of La Feldt, a ſcheme was laid to ſeize and carry off the king of France from the camp; but it was timely diſcovered by the vigilance of Mr. de Sechelles, then intendant of the army, and conſequently prevented. The carts which carried the uniforms of the body guards, and which were to have been made uſe of in the execution of the plot, were all ſeized and burnt, without even the cheſts, &c. being opened, that the army might not aſk for what theſe uniforms were deſign-

designed. Immediately one Fontauban, a spy of the two armies, a man of an intriguing genius, who had helped to ruin many of the nobility, by the usurious bonds he had made them contract, and by the pleasures he had procured for them, not daring to return to Paris, thought he should be safe at Lisle, in Flanders; but he was taken up under the pretence that he had tried to negotiate several bills of sundry lords who were yet minors, and under guardianship: he was carried to M. de Sechelles, who had in his hands sufficient proof of his manifold guilt, and he was interrogated in the cabinet of the minister, who was assisted only by a discreet secretary. After six hours examination, he was sent to prison, and an order given to a priest to go and prepare him for that death he was to suffer in three hours after. A gallows was fixed in the market-place, and twelve regiments of foot were ordered to surround the place, and that the very moment the criminal appeared, the drums should beat to arms, and never cease till the execution was over, that no person whatsoever might hear what he said. All this was done, and the dead body was burnt at the foot of the gallows, with all the papers of the proceedings of that affair.

The French are often surprised at the choice their kings make of ministers and favourites; it is he alone who, by secret proceedings, is able to know his subjects, and he very often leaves the curious public ignorant of the cause of his preferring a silent punishment: for in the above plot there were more French than English or Germans.

In like manner, if the marquis de Fratteaux was guilty of the attempt on his father's life, his father could not take too many secret precautions to seize him; and thereby not only preserve his own life, but shun the ignominy a public punishment would have cast upon his own family; and therefore the steps he took were the most wise and prudent: for if he had accused his son in a court of justice, he would have been punished according to all the rigour of the law, and the father would not have been able, either by his interest or his riches, to take him then out of the hands of justice. Parricides in France are punished by the wheel and fire; and the king, with all his authority, could not have pardoned him: the only favour which could have been granted, would have been a transmutation of his sentence to beheading, and even then the scandal following such a crime would have been an indelible blot upon the father and the whole family.

In considering impartially this affair, it is very easy to perceive, that if the marquis had not been chargeable with that attempt, he had been guilty of some other capital crime; and the coldness with which the English ministry acted, in sending after him, shews that they were somewhat in accord with the court of France, and were not willing that he should be brought back to England: because he being free in London, might have found there bad people, as capable to execute his design upon his father, as his father had found to seize and carry off his son.—These are the charges of accusation brought against M. Frat-

Fratteaux, which neither the court of France, nor that of England, thought fit to make public.

It has been said that, after M. de Fratteaux was carried off, he languished in the Bastile; which is totally false: he is now actually at liberty at his estate at Fratteaux; for when his brother, M. Bertin de Bourdeille, was made intendant of Lyons, he obtained his liberty, on his giving his word of honour to M. Bertin de Bourdeille, to remain at his estate at Fratteaux, and never to go above six miles from it, without leave from his father. Two months after his arrival there, his father went to see him, and he had leave to return the visit at Bourdeille. He has kept his word of honour strictly, and lives at present in cordiality with his whole family.

Epitaph on the late Doctor King, of St. Mary's Hall, Oxford, written by himself, in order to be engraved on a silver case, in which he directed his heart should be preserved, in some convenient part of that house.

EPITAPHIUM
GUILIELMI KING;
A seipso scriptum
Pridie nonas Junii
Die natali Georgii III.
MDCCLXII.

Fui
GUILIELMUS KING, L. L. D.
Ab anno MDCCXIX. ad annum MDCC—
Hujus Aulæ Præfectus.
Literis humanioribus a puero deditus:
Eas usq; ad supremum vitæ diem colui.
Neque vitiis carui, neq; virtutibus;
Imprudens et improvidus, comis et benevolus;
Sæpe æquo iracundior,
Haud unquam ut essem implacabilis.
A luxuriâ pariter ac avaritiâ
(Quam non tam vitium
Quam mentis insanitatem esse duxi)
Prorsus abhorrens.
Cives, hospites, peregrinos
Omnino liberaliter accepi.
Ipse et cibi parcus, et vini parcissimus.
Cum magnis vixi, cum plebeis, cum omnibus,
Ut homines noscerem, ut me ipsum imprimis:
Neque, eheu, novi!
Permultos habui amicos,
At veros, stabiles, gratos,
(Quæ fortasse est gentis culpa)
Perpaucissimos.
Plures habui inimicos,
Sed invidos, sed improbos, sed inhumanos.
Quorum nullis tamen injuriis
Perinde commotus fui
Quam deliquiis meis.
Summam, quam adeptus sum, senectutem
Neque optavi, neque accusavi.
Vitæ incommoda neque immoderate ferens,
Neque commodis nimium contentus.
Mortem neque contempsi,
Neque metui.
Deus optime,
Qui hunc orbem et humanos res curas,
Miserere animæ meæ!

TRANSLATION.

EPITAPH
Of WILLIAM KING:
Written by himself
June the fourth,
Birth-day of George III.
MDCCLXII.

I was,
WILLIAM KING, L. L. D.
From the year MDCCXIX to the year MDCC—
Principal of this hall.
Given to polite letters from a boy:
I cultivated them even to the last day of my life.

I want-

I wanted neither vices, nor virtues;
Imprudent and improvident, gentle and benevolent:
Often too prone to anger,
Never implacable.
To luxury as well as avarice
(Which laſt I conſidered not as a vice
But as madneſs)
Totally averſe.
Citizens, gueſts, and foreigners,
I received with the moſt open hoſpitality:
Myſelf temperate in eating,
In drinking moſt temperate.
I lived with the high, with the low, with all,
That I might know mankind, and chiefly myſelf:
Both which, alas! I knew not!
I had very many friends,
But true, firm, grateful,
(Which perhaps is the national failing) very, very few.
I had many enemies,
But envious, but wicked, but inhuman;
With whoſe injuries, however,
I was never ſo deeply affected
As with my own tranſgreſſions.
The extreme old age, to which I attained,
I neither wiſhed for, nor accuſed:
Neither bearing the evils of life too impatiently,
Nor too much delighted with its bleſſings.
Death I neither deſpiſed,
Nor feared.
Moſt higheſt,
Who takeſt care of this world and the affairs of men,
Have mercy upon my ſoul!

NATURAL HISTORY.

IT has been justly regretted, that we know little more of the inland parts of Spain, than of the inland parts of Africa. Except the Spanish novels, and the Ladies travels into Spain, there is scarce a book yet extant from which we can form any idea of the manners of the people, or the produce or curiosities of the country; some letters lately published having only disappointed the curiosity they raised. The following piece, therefore, must be considered as a valuable addition of knowledge to the common stock, as the product of a mine scarce opened before, which abounds with the most valuable and curious materials. It is greatly to be wished that the ingenious author would transmit some farther account of a people who are, in many respects, what the rest of Europe was five centuries ago. They have no intercourse with other nations, either for pleasure or profit; their superstition has suffered very little from the advancement of general knowledge, and they have preserved their ancient habits of life, which, in other places, have been changed by the improvement of arts, and the establishment of manufactories.

There are, besides, in the interior parts of Spain, many curious remains of Mooriſh antiquity, many traditions of unwritten events, many opinions which have been driven from the rest of Europe, and some amusements and employments known no where else.

Though the following letter relates principally to the sheep and sheep walks of Spain, it contains, however, many other very curious particulars relating to the face of the country and its product and contents, the revenues of the king, the character of the eccleſiaſtics, and the œconomy of a paſtoral life.

Account of the ſheep and ſheep walks of Spain, in a letter from a gentleman in Spain, to Mr. Peter Collinſon, F. R. S.

SIR,

THERE are two kinds of ſheep in Spain. The coarſe-wooled ſheep, who remain all their lives in their native country, and who are houſed every night in winter; and the fine-wooled ſheep, who are all their lives in the open air, who travel every ſummer from the cool mountains of the northern parts of Spain, to feed all the winter on the ſouthern warm plains of Andalouſia, Manca, and Extramadura. From computations made with the utmoſt accuracy, it has appeared, that there are five millions of fine-wooled ſheep in Spain, and that the wool and fleſh of a flock of ten thouſand ſheep, produced yearly about 24 reals a head, which we will ſuppoſe to be nearly the value of 12 Engliſh ſixpences; of theſe but one goes clear a head to the owner yearly, three ſixpences a head goes yearly to the king, and the other eight go to the expences of paſture, tythes, ſhepherds, dogs, ſalt, ſheering, &c.

Thus the annual product of the five millions of ſheep amounts to 37 millions and a half of ſixpences, a little more or leſs, of which

which there is about three millions and a half for the owners; above 15 millions enter into the treasury, and seven millions and a half go to the benefit of the public. Hence it is the kings of Spain call these flocks in their ordinances, *the precious jewel of the crown.*

Formerly this jewel was really set in the crown, a succession of many kings were lords of all the flocks: hence that great number of ordinances, penal laws, privileges and immunities which issued forth in different reigns for the preservation and special government of the sheep. Hence a royal council was formed under the title of the council of the grand royal flock, which exists to this day, though the king has not a single sheep. Various exigencies of state, in different reigns, alienated, by degrees, the whole grand flock from the crown, together with all its privileges, which were collected and published in the year 1731, under the title of laws of the royal flock; a volume in large folio of above 500 pages.

The wars and wants of Philip the first's reign, forced that king to sell forty thousand sheep to the marquis of Iturbieta, which was the last flock of the crown.

Ten thousand sheep compose a flock, which is divided into ten tribes. One man has the conduct of all. He must be the owner of 4 or 500 sheep, strong, active, vigilant, intelligent in pasture, in the weather, and in the diseases of sheep. He has absolute dominion over 50 shepherds and 50 dogs, five of each to a tribe. He chooses them, he chastises them, or discharges them at will; he is the prepositus or chief shepherd of the whole flock. You may judge of his importance by his salary, he has 40 pounds a year and a horse, whereas the first shepherd of a tribe has but 40 shillings a year, the second 34, the third 25, the fourth 15, and a boy 10 shillings a year. All their allowance is two pounds of bread a day each. They may keep a few goats and sheep in the flock, but the wool is for the master; they have only the lambs and the flesh. The chief shepherd gives them three shillings in April, and three in October, by way of regale for the road; and these are all the sweets these miserable wretches enjoy. Exposed every day in the year to all weathers, and every night to lie in a hut. Thus fare, and thus live, generally to old age, 25000 men, who cloath kings in scarlet, and bishops in purple; for that is the number computed to keep the fine-wooled sheep of Spain, with the same number of dogs of the large mastiff kind, who are allowed two pounds of bread a-piece a day. I often saw these flocks in the summer sheep walks of the hills and vales of Leo, Old Castile, Cuenca and Arragon. I saw them in their winter plains of Manca, Extramadura, and Andalousia. I often met them in their peregrination from the one to the other. I saw and I saw again. One eye is worth an hundred ears. I enquired, I observed, and even made experiments. All this was done when I happily got acquainted with a good plain old friar, who had a consummate knowledge of all the mechanical, low, minute circumstances and œconomy of a flock. He told me that he was the son of a shepherd, that he had followed 15 long years the

the tribe of sheep his father led, that at 25 years of age he begged an old primer, that at 30 he could read, that at 36 he had learned Latin enough to read mass and the breviary, that he was ordained by Don Juan Navarra, lord bishop of Albarazzin, who, as it is known, even to a proverb in Spain, has ordained thousands, declaring these 40 years in a loud voice, *That a priest is the most precious boon which a bishop can bestow, in the name of God, to mankind, even though he was as unlearned as an apostle.* That thus ordained he entered into the order of St. Francis, that he had never meddled in their affairs these 24 years past, but only said mass, confessed, instructed, and gave an eye to about 500 wethers who grased in the neighbouring downs for the use of the convent; that he had read the bible, the lives of the saints, and the lives of the popes, with no other view in the world but to find out all that was said about shepherds; that good Abel was the first shepherd, that all the patriarchs were shepherds, that the meek shepherd Moses was chosen to deliver the people of God out of bondage; that Saul, in seeking his father's flocks found a kingdom; that David went out from his flock to slay the Philistine giant; that 14,000 sheep was the chief reward Job received for his invincible patience; that Isidro, the protecting saint of Madrid, was not, as is vulgarly believed, an husbandman, like wicked Cain, but that he was really a keeper of sheep; that the great pope Sextus Quintus was verily and truly a shepherd, and not a swine-herd; that, for his part, he had forsaken his sheep to become a shepherd of men. He had all these things by heart just as he had all the minute circumstances of the sheep he had followed, and this letter would have been imperfect had I not met him.

The five millions of sheep pass the summer in the cool mountains and hills above named. Before we begin their itineraries to their winter walks, let us see how a few flocks live in a couple of cantons, which I will chuse to serve as examples for all the rest. One is the Montana, the other is Molina Arragon. I select these two for these reasons; because I passed two summers in one, and a summer in the other. One is the most northern part of Spain, and at the greatest distance from the winter walks; the other is towards the east, and the shortest journey the sheep have to make. One is the highest and the other the lowest summer walk in Spain, and because one is full of aromatic plants, and the other has none.

At the extremity of Old Castile, there is a territory called the Montana. It is divided into two parts. The low Montana is that chain of mountains which bounds the Cantabrian sea. The city of Santander is its chief port, from whence you ascend southerly, 12 long leagues, a succession of high craggy mountains, to the town of Reynosa, in the upper Montana, which ascent reaches three leagues more, and then you always descend about 14 leagues to the city of Burgos, capital of Old Castile. Reynosa is in the center of an open plain, surrounded by a ridge of high mountains, at whose feet are low hills of pasture land. The source of the great river Ebro, is an hour's walk to the west of Reynosa. All the

ſpring rain, and ſnow waters of the mountains to the north of Reynoſa, run into the bay of Biſcay. The waters of the ſouthern chain are collected in the river Piſuerga, which running into the river Duero, are carried to the Atlantic Ocean at Oporto, and all the water that falls into the plains of Reynoſa, runs with the Ebro into the Mediterranean ſeven leagues below the city of Tortoſa. Hence we ſee that the adjacent parts of Reynoſa divide the waters of three ſeas, which lie north, eaſt, and weſt. Eight leagues ſquare of this upper Montana is the higheſt land of Spain; the mountains riſe in the atmoſphere to the line of congelation. I ſee ſnow from my window this fourth of Auguſt that I am writing this. Some years ago, there uſed to fall ſo much ſnow, that the people were forced to dig lanes through the ſnow to go to church in winter, but there has fallen little ſnow ſince the Liſbon earthquake, and ſome years none at all. It certainly changed the climates of many parts of Spain. No man living ſaw, nor heard his father ſay he ſaw ſnow fall in or about Seville, till the year 1756, which extraordinary appearance ſtruck a dread into ſome convents; they rung the bells to prayers, and made proceſſions to appeaſe the wrath of heaven, as if the falling flakes foreboded the laſt day. I found many plants only beginning to flower here, which I ſaw in ſeed below at Santander. I remember to have ſeen in Switzerland all the plants, but two, which grow in the mountains, hills, and plains of Reynoſa, a ſmall yellow flowered geniſtella, with an herbaceous, triangular jointed ſtem, and wild gooſeberry buſhes. The high mountains abound with oak, beech, birch, holly, and hazel.

The hills and plains are fine paſture; I never ſaw a meadow in any other part of Spain, nor cows and horſes feed on hay. Theſe mountains are formed of ſand-ſtone, lime-ſtone, plaiſter-ſtone, [talc] and emery-ſtone. The ſand-ſtone is at the ſummit of the mountains and hills in ſome, and the lime-ſtone forms the body. You ſee the contrary in others, but the ſand-ſtone abounds, and the plaiſter is always the loweſt. As for example, the high mountain of Arandilla, which is about a ſmall league north of the town, is all ſand-ſtone at the ſummit; its body is a maſs of aſh-coloured lime-ſtone, in which you find impriſoned petrified cornua ammonis and ſcollop-ſhells, and beds of plaiſter-ſtone at its foot towards the plain, which join to ſtrata of black marble veined with white and yellow, which is no more than a purer lime-ſtone like all other marble, and you find great blocks of emery-ſtone in the plain, and on the hill to the eaſt of Reynoſa, of which I will ſay a word becauſe I think its nature is not truly known, at leaſt that of emery, which the looking-glaſs grinders of the king's fabric at St. Ildefonſo ſay is the moſt biting emery they ever uſed, and I never ſaw any other in its native matrix. That iron has been, and is now, in a fluid ſtate, percolating through the earth, and that it ſubſides, chryſtaliſes, or is precipitated to form different bodies, is demonſtrated by the black and red bloodſtone, [hematites] by ſome beautiful ſtalactites which are almoſt pure iron; by the eagle-ſtone; by figured pyrites;

pyrites; by native vitriol, and by native crocus. When this fluid iron penetrates a rock of ſand-ſtone, and only ſtains the ſurface of each grain of a browniſh, reddiſh, or yellow colour, it is only ſand and crocus. But when this fluid iron joined with the chryſtaline matter is in a fluid ſtate, in the very act of the chryſtaliſation of each grain of ſand, it incorporates with it, increaſes its weight and hardneſs; it is emery. The earths of the mountains and hills are of the nature of the rock below. If it be lime-ſtone, the ſoil caſt into any acid liquor will boil up with a violent efferveſcence, and the acid will diſſolve it. If the rock below be ſand-ſtone, plaiſter-ſtone, or emery, the earths of the hill or mountain will remain quiet in the acid, there is no efferveſcence nor diſſolution. I often obſerved that when the rocks below are mixed, (calcary and non-calcary,) the ſoil of the ſurface is of a mixed nature too, and I always found the action of the acid to be weak or ſtrong upon theſe earths, in proportion to the ſtone that abounds. The farmers have found out by experience the genus of theſe two ſimple, and even the mixt ſoils; they know that corn grows beſt in the ſod that covers the lime-ſtone, that the mixed requires much manure, and that the deep fat clayey ſoil, which covers the ſand-ſtone muſt have more ploughing, and other labour than the farmer can afford, and corn-land and calcarious or lime-ſtone land, are ſynonimous terms, in this country. Theſe rocks and earths would be improperly mentioned in a letter upon wool, wa: it not that the ſheep find out the nature of theſe three ſoils as ſure as farmers and acids.

The firſt thing the ſhepherd does when the flock returns from the ſouth to their ſummer downs, is to give them as much ſalt as they will eat; every owner allows his flock of a thouſand ſheep one hundred aroves or twenty-five quintals of ſalt, which the flock eats in about five months; they eat none in their journey nor in their winter walk. This has ever been the cuſtom, and it is the true reaſon why the kings of Spain can't raiſe the price of ſalt to the height it is in France, for it would tempt the ſhepherds to ſtint the ſheep, which, it's believed, would weaken their conſtitutions and degrade the wool. The ſhepherd places fifty or ſixty flat ſtones at about five ſteps diſtance from each other, he ſtrews ſalt upon each ſtone, he leads the flock ſlowly through the ſtones, and every ſheep eats to his liking. But then they never eat a grain of ſalt when they are feeding in lime-ſtone land, whether it be on the graſs of the downs, or on the little plants of the corn fields after harveſt-home. The ſhepherd muſt not ſuffer them to ſtay too long without ſalt, he leads them into a ſpot of [argilaceous,] clayey ſoil and in a quarter of an hour's feeding, they march to the ſtones and devour the ſalt. If they meet a ſpot of the mixed ſoil, which often happens, they eat ſalt in proportion. Aſk the ſhepherd why the ſheep eat no ſalt in lime-ſtone ſoil, and but little in the mixt? Becauſe, Sir, it is corn land. I know, and indeed, who does not know, that lime abounds

in saline matter, but then the salt which chymists extract from it may not be the genuine salt of the lime-stone before calcination, for the fire may form new combinations. It may be sea salt, or at least the muriatic acid which rises in the vegetation of grass, and satisfies the sheeps taste for salt. The latter end of July the rams are turned into the tribe of ewes, regulated at six or seven rams for every hundred; when the shepherd judges they are served, he collects the rams into a separate tribe to feed apart; but then there is another tribe of rams that feed apart too, and never serve the ewes, but which are merely for wool, and for the butchery; for though the wool and flesh of wethers are finer and more delicate than those of rams, yet the fleece of a ram weighs more than the fleece of a wether, who is likewise shorter lived than the ram, which compensation is the reason, there are so few tribes of wethers in the royal flock of Spain. The fleeces of three rams generally weigh twenty-five pounds; there must be the wool of four wethers and that of five ewes to weigh twenty-five pounds. There is the same disproportion in their lives, which depend upon their teeth, for when they fail they can't bite the grass, and they are condemned to the knife; the ewes teeth, from their tender constitutions, and the fatigue of breeding, begin to fail after five years of age, the wethers after six, and the robust ram not till towards eight. It is forbidden to expose rams flesh to sale, but the law is eluded; they cut the old rams, and as soon as the incision is healed, they are sold to the butchers at a lower price than coarse-wooled wethers; that is the reason such bad mutton is generally eaten in Madrid, and that is the reason there are more rams and fewer lambs stones sold and eaten every day in the year in Madrid, than in the rest of Europe.

At the latter end of September they put on the redding or ocre; it is a ponderous irony earth, common in Spain; the shepherd dissolves it in water, and dawbs the sheeps backs with it from the neck to the rump. It is an old custom. Some say it mixes with the grease of the wool, and so becomes a varnish impenetrable to the rain and cold; others, that its weight keeps the wool down, so hinders it from growing long and coarse; and others, that it acts as an absorbent earth, receives part of the transpiration, which would foul the wool, and make it asperous.

The latter end of September the sheep begin their march towards the low plains; their itinerary is marked out by immemorial custom, and by ordinances, and is as well regulated as the march of troops. They feed freely in all the wilds and commons they pass through; but as they must necessarily pass through many cultivated spots, the proprietors of them are obliged by law to leave a passage open for the sheep, through vineyards, olive-yards, corn-fields, and pasture land common to towns, and these passages must be at least 90 yards wide, that they may not be too crowded in a narrow lane. These passages are often so long

that

that the poor creatures march 6 or 7 leagues a day to get into the open wilds, where the ſhepherd walks ſlow to let them feed at eaſe and reſt; but they never ſtop, they have no day of repoſe, they march at leaſt two leagues a day, *ever following the ſhepherd*, always feeding or ſeeking with their heads towards the ground, till they get to their journey's end, which, from the Montana to Extremadura, is about 150 leagues, which they march in leſs than 40 days. The chief ſhepherd's firſt care is to ſee that each tribe is conducted to the ſame diſtrict it fed in the year before, and where the ſheep were yeaned, which they think prevents a variation in the wool, though indeed this requires but little care, for it is a notorious truth that the ſheep would go to that very ſpot of their own accord. His next care was to fix the toils * where the ſheep paſs the night, leſt they ſhould ſtray, and fall into the jaws of wolves. Laſtly, the ſhepherds make up their poor huts with ſtakes, branches, and brambles, for which end, and for firing, they are allowed by the law to cut off one branch from every tree; I believe this to be the reaſon that all the foreſt-trees near the ſheep walks in Spain are as hollow as willow-pollards. The roots of trees and the quantity of ſap increaſe yearly with the branches; if you lop off theſe, all the ſap that ſhould go to the annual production, and to the nouriſhment of buds, ſtems, leaves, flowers, fruit, and growth of the branches, remains in the trunk, from hence ſtagnation, fermentation, and rottenneſs. Next comes the time when the ewes begin to drop their lambs, which is the moſt toilſome and moſt ſollicitous part of the paſtoral life. The ſhepherds firſt cull out the barren from the pregnant ewes, which are conducted to the beſt ſhelter, and the others to the bleakeſt part of the diſtrict. As the lambs fall they are led apart with their dams to another comfortable ſpot. A third diviſion is made of the laſt yeaned lambs, for whom was allotted from the beginning the moſt fertile part, the beſt ſoil, and ſweeteſt graſs of the down, that they may grow as vigorous as the firſt yeaned, for they muſt all march the ſame day towards their ſummer quarters. The ſhepherds perform four operations upon all the lambs about the ſame time in the month of March, but firſt they pay the twentieth lamb; the other half tythe is paid in the winter walk. They cut off their tails five inches below the rump for cleanlineſs. They mark them on the noſe with a hot iron. They ſaw off part of their horns that the rams may neither hurt one another nor the ewes. They render impotent the lambs doomed for docil bell wethers, to walk at the head of the tribe; they make no inciſion; the ſhepherd turns the teſticles with his finger twenty

* The toils are made of ſparto, in meſhes a foot wide, and the thickneſs of a finger, ſo that toils ſerve inſtead of hurdles. The whole ſquare toil is light. Sparto is a ſort of ruſh which bears twiſting into ropes for coaſting veſſels. It ſwims; hemp ſinks: It is called Boſs by the Engliſh ſailors.

times about in the ſcrotum, till he twiſts the ſpermatic veſſels as a rope, and they wither away without any danger. As ſoon as the month of April comes about, which is the time of their departure, the ſheep expreſs, by various uneaſy motions, a remarkable reſtleſsneſs, and ſtrong deſire to go off. The ſhepherds muſt exert all their vigilance leſt they ſhould eſcape, and it has often happened that a tribe has ſtolen a forced march of three or four leagues upon a ſleepy ſhepherd; but he is ſure to find them, for they return exactly the ſame way they came, and there are many examples of three or four ſtrayed ſheep walking an hundred leagues to the very place they fed in the year before. Thus they all go off towards their ſummer mountains in the ſame order they came, only with this difference, the flocks that go to Leo and Caſtile are ſhorn in the road, where we will ſtay a little to ſee the apparatus of this operation, whilſt the other flocks march on to Molina Arragon. They begin to ſheer the firſt of May, provided the weather be fair, for if the wool were not quite dry, the fleeces which are cloſe piled upon one another would ferment and rot; it is for this reaſon that the ſheering-houſes are ſo ſpacious. I ſaw ſome which can contain in bad weather 20,000 ſheep, and coſt above 5000 l. ſterling; beſides, the ewes are creatures of ſuch conſtitutions, that if they were expoſed immediately after ſheering to the air of a bleak night, they would all periſh.

There are 125 ſheermen employed to ſheer a flock of 10,000 ſheep; a man ſheers 12 ewes a day and but eight rams; the reaſon of this difference is, not only becauſe the rams have larger bodies, ſtronger and more wool, but the ſheermen dare not tye their feet as they do thoſe of the unreſiſting ewes. Experience taught, that the bold rebellious ram would ſtruggle even to ſuffocation in captivity under the ſheers; they gently lay him down, they ſtroke his belly, they beguile him out of his fleece; a certain number of ſheep are led into the great ſhelter-houſe, which is a parallelogram of 4 or 500 feet long, and 100 wide, where they remain all day; as many as they judge can be diſpatched by the ſheermen next day, are driven from the ſhelter-hall into a long, narrow, low gut, which is called the ſweating place, where they remain all night, crowded as cloſe together as the ſhepherd can keep them, that they may ſweat plentifully, which, as they ſay, is to ſoften the wool for the ſheers, and oil their edges. They are led by degrees in the morning into the ſpacious ſheering-hall, which joins the ſweating room. The ſhepherd carries them off as faſt as they are ſheered to be marked with tar, and as this operation is neceſſarily performed upon one at a time, it gives a fair opportunity to the ſhepherds to cull out for the butchery all the ſheep of the flock who have outlived their teeth. The ſheered ſheep go to the fields to feed a little if it be fine weather, and they return in the evening to paſs the night in the yard before the houſe, within the ſhelter of the walls, but if it be cold and cloudy they go into

into the houſe; they are thus brought by degrees to bear the open air, and their firſt days journeys from the ſheering-houſe to the mountains are ſhort, where we will leave them to conclude their annual peregrination, and go ſee how fare the flocks of Molina Arragon, which have by this time got thither; but while the mule is ſaddling, a word of the ſhorn wool.

The ſheep and ſheerers diſpatched, the firſt thing done is to weigh the whole pile of wool; the next is to divide each fleece into three ſorts of wool; the back and belly give the ſuperfine, the neck and ſides give the fine; the breaſt, ſhoulders, and thighs the coarſe wool. A different price is fixt upon theſe three claſſes, though the general cuſtom is to ſell the whole pile together at a mean price. It is ſold after it is waſhed, when it is to go out of the kingdom, or to any conſiderable diſtance in it; for as it never loſes leſs than half its weight in waſhing, and often more when the ſweating is violent, half the carriage is ſaved.

Here I ſee that I have changed the order I propoſed in ſetting out, for I have followed the ſheep from the mountains to the plains, and back again, but 'tis not worth mending.

Thirty-one leagues S. E. of Madrid, and five leagues S. of the ſource of the river Tagus, is the town of Molina Arragon, capital of a lordſhip of the crown, which is twelve leagues wide, as many long, and almoſt in the center of Spain. The highlands of this little territory are covered with pine trees; the lowlands feed about 150,000 ſheep: here I learnt ſome truths, which prove that the three following opinions ſhould be ranked amongſt vulgar errors.

1. That ſheep eat and love aromatic plants, and that the fleſh of thoſe that feed on hills where ſweet herbs abound has a fine taſte.

2. That ſalt-ſprings are not found in the high primitive mountains, but in the low hills and plains only.

3. That metallic vapours deſtroy vegetation; that no rocks nor mountains pregnant with rich veins of ore are covered with rich vegetable ſoil.

The town of Molina is almoſt in the middle of the ſheep walks. The ſolid part of the country is formed of red and grey ſand-ſtone, lime-ſtone, white and grey granite, and plaſter-ſtone, white, grey, yellow, bluiſh, greeniſh, and blood red; in ſome places theſe are all beautifully mixed in one ſtratum. Time and moiſture uncompound theſe ſtones; for they have mouldered and are daily mouldering into the ſoil of the country, which is always of the ſame nature as that of the rock. The red fuller's earth, with which the manufacturers of Molina clean their cloth, is evidently the very grains of ſand of the red rock degraded into earth. The rocks about the town contain either ſalt or ſaltpetre; you ſee the hewn ſtones of the houſes covered with ſaline efflorescences which are drawn out by the ſun after rain. The whole territory of Molina is full of ſalt ſprings, but there is a copious ſalt ſpring riſing out of a land yet higher than the ſource of the Tagus, and not far from it, which is one of the

higheſt lands in all the inward parts of Spain; for it divides the waters of the ocean and Mediterranean. The Tagus runs 150 leagues to Liſbon, and the two rivers Guadalvair, and Sucar, which riſe near it, run to Valencia. This ſpring furniſhes ſalt to the juriſdiction and biſhopric of Albarrazin. There is another ſalt ſpring, in a high land too, which ſupplies the 82 towns and villages of Molina Arragon with ſalt. Now I will mention the ſalt ſpring that iſſues out of a ſpot in the Montana, which is higher than the ſource of the Ebro, and about a quarter of a mile from it.

There are many iron, copper, lead, and pure pyritous ores in theſe ſheep walks, where grow the ſame plants and the ſame ſweet graſs as in the other parts. I will give one example. About two hours walk N. W. of Molina there is a little hill called the Platilla; it is about half a league over from valley to valley: its body is ſolid, rocky, of white granite, through which run in different directions, and without any order, an infinite number of blue, green, and yellow veins of rich copper ores, which hold a little ſilver, mineraliſed by a great quantity of arſenic and ſulphur. The very ſurface of the rock is in many places ſtained bluiſh and green, and the veins of ore are not above a foot deep in the fiſſures and in the ſolid rock, which contain lead ore ſometimes up to the ſurface.

The following plants grow out of the ſoil which covers theſe arſenical ſulphureous veins, and which is not above a foot deep. True oak, ilex, whoſe leaves fall; whie-thorn, juniper; theſe are poor ſhrubs becauſe they are browſed by the goats. Cyſtus, wild-roſe, uva-urſi, phlomis ſalviæ, fol. ſl. luteo, verbaſcum of the highways, ſtœchas, ſage, thymum legitimum, clus, ſerpyllum, greater and leſſer; roſemary, helianthemum, pimpinella, chamædris, filipendula, ſtachys lychnoides, incana anguſtifolia flo. aureo. var. The great aſphodel, coronilla of the meadows, gallium luteum, yarrow, campanula radice eſculenta, a jacobea which I ſaw grow in the ſand of the ſea ſide, and is all quite white. A gladiolus, and a little glaucium, which grow in corn fields in Spain; leucanthemum of the meadows, orchis, ornithogalum, muſcari, polygala, and above twenty kinds more, which are found likewiſe in meadows, corn fields, highways, hedges, and ſea ſhores; yet the non-calcary earth of this mineral hill is covered with the ſame ſweet ſmall graſs as the reſt of the country, even the lime-ſtone land. I made the ſame obſervations at the three greateſt mines in Europe; St. Mary of the mines in Alſatia; Clauſtahl in the Hartz-mountains of Hanover; and Freyberg in Saxony. The mines of St. Mary are at the head of a valley in the Voge-mountains; its hills are ſome of them covered with oak and pines, others with apple, pear, plumb, and cherry-trees: others are fine green downs for ſheep and cows, with a great variety of plants; others are fields of wheat, which the year 1759, (as I find it in my notes) gave a product of eight for one. All theſe things grow in a foot or two deep of ſoil, which covers a rock full of the moſt arſenical, ſulphureous, ſilver, or

or copper, lead and cobalt ore in Europe, and moſt of their veins near the ſurface.

The mines of Clauſtahl are in a plain which is, in truth, the ſummit of a mountain. The Dorothy and Caroline veins of ſilver, lead, and copper ore ſtretched away eight miles to the Wildman mountain. The fineſt meadows and ſweeteſt graſs are upon theſe veins and all their branches near the city; they feed 900 cows, and 200 horſes. They are mowed in June; a ſecond graſs ſprings up, which is mowed in Auguſt. A multitude of plants grow in theſe meadows over the mines, as valerian, gallium fl. albo, coronilla, chryſanthemum ſegetum, leucanthemum, viola tricolor. biſtort. bonus henricus, St. John's wort, agrimony, ladies mantle, tuſſilago, &c.

The mines of Freyberg are in the low hills near the city; I ſaw them all covered with barley in the month of July: A ſtranger would not imagine that men were reaping corn over hundreds of miners heads, who were blowing up veins of ore, arſenic, and brimſtone.

It is true I alſo ſaw mines in the barren naked mountains and hills, but it is certain that their barrenneſs is not the effect of mineral vapours. The air, moiſture, heat, and cold, have more power over the ſurfaces of ſome rocks than others, to moulder the ſtone into earth; ſuch is the high mountain Ramelſberg, at whoſe foot is the imperial city of Goſlar, whoſe inhabitants live, and have lived theſe 900 years by the mine of this ſteep barren mountain. I crept up to its ſummit, and found it was ſplit and cracked into millions of fiſſures, from a foot wide to a hair's breadth; that in other places the rock was ſhivered into ſmall rotten ſtones, which, in ſome ſpots, were perfectly uncompounded and fallen into earth, from whence ſprung a little graſs, moſs, and a few plants. In ſhort, I ſaw that the time of its decay into vegetable mould was not yet come, and that the mountain Ramelſberg will be one day as green as Clauſtahl, which ſhews, I think, that the world is not ſo old as ſome men fancy. I will make no apology to Mr. Peter Collinſon for this digreſſion; I heard Fame declare him twenty years ago an enemy to error; he muſt love truth though he finds it placed out of order.

As my duty obliged me to paſs hundreds of days at the Platillo mine of Molina, I ſaw thouſands of ſheep feed around it. I obſerved that when the ſhepherd made a pauſe, and let them feed at their will, they ſought only for the fine graſs, and never touched any aromatic plant; that when the creeping ſerpillum was interwoven with the graſs, the ſheep induſtriouſly noſled it aſide to bite a blade, which trouble made them ſoon ſeek out a pure graminous ſpot. I obſerved too when the ſhepherd perceived a threatning cloud, and gave a ſignal to the dogs to collect the tribe and then go behind it, walking a pace himſelf to lead the ſheep to ſhelter, that as they had no time to ſtoop they would take a ſnap of ſtæchas, roſemary, or any other ſhrub in their way, for ſheep will eat any thing when

they are hungry, or when they walk faſt. I ſaw them greedily devour henbane, hemlock, glaucium, and other nauſeous weeds, upon their iſſue out of the ſheering houſe. If ſheep loved aromatic plants, it would be one of the greateſt misfortunes that could befall the farmers of Spain. The number of bee-hives is incredible; I am almoſt aſhamed to give under my hand, that I knew a pariſh prieſt who had 5000 hives. The bees ſuck all their honey, and gather all their wax from the aromatic flowers, which enamel and perfume two thirds of the ſheep-walks. This prieſt cautiouſly ſeizes the queens in a ſmall crape fly catch, he clips off their wings; their majeſties ſtay at home; he aſſured me that he never loſt a ſwarm from the day of this diſcovery to the day he ſaw me, which I think was five years.

The ſhepherd's chief care is not to ſuffer the ſheep to go out of their toils till the morning ſun has exhaled the dew of a white froſt, and never let them approach a rivulet or pond after a ſhower of hail, for if they ſhould eat the dewy graſs, or drink hail water, the whole tribe would become melancholy, faſt, pine away and die, as often happened. Hail water is ſo pernicious to men in this climate, that the people of Molina will not drink the river water after a violent ſhower of hail, experience taught the danger; but let it be never ſo muddy, and riſe never ſo high after rain, they drink it without fear. Perhaps this may be the unheeded cauſe of many endemical-epidemics of other cities. The ſheep of Andaluſia who never travel, have coarſe, long, hairy wool. I ſaw a flock in Extremadura whoſe wool trailed on the ground. The itinerant ſheep have ſhort, ſilky, white wool. I do believe, from a few experiments, and long obſervation, that if the fine-wooled-ſheep ſtayed at home in the winter, their wool would become coarſe in a few generations. If the coarſe-wooled ſheep travelled from climate to climate, and lived in the free air, their wool would become fine, ſhort, and ſilky in a few generations.

The fineneſs of the wool is due to the animal's paſſing its life in an open air of equal temperature. It is not colder in Andaluſia and Extremadura in the winter than it is in the Montana or Molina in ſummer. There is little froſt in Andaluſia, ſometimes it ſnows in June in Molina. I felt a cold day upon the leaſt cloud in ſummer. Conſtant heat or conſtant cold, with houſing, are the cauſes of coarſe, black and ſpeckled wool. All the animals, I know, who live in the open air, conſtantly keep up to the colour of their fires. There are the moſt beautiful brindled ſheep in the world among the coarſe wooled ſheep of Spain. I never ſaw one amongſt the fine-wooled flocks; the free but leſs-abundant perſpiration in the open air, is ſwept away as faſt as it flows, whereas it is greatly increaſed by the exceſſive heat of numbers of ſheep houſed all night in a narrow place. It fouls the wool, makes it hairy, and changes its colour. The ſwine in Spain, who paſs their lives in the woods, are all of one colour, as the wild boars. They have

have fine, ſilky, curled briſtles. Never did a Spaniſh hog's briſtle pierce a ſhoe. What a quantity of dander is daily ſecerned from the glans of a ſtabled horſe; the curry-comb and hair-cloth ever in hand. How clean is the ſkin of an horſe that lives in the open air?

I am, Sir, &c. W. B.

Extract from M. l' Abbé Chappe d' Auteroche's journey to Siberia, for obſerving the late tranſit of Venus over the Sun; performed by orders of his moſt Chriſtian majeſty.

THE abbé having received orders from the king, and recommendations from the academy, for a journey to Tobolſki, ſet out from Paris at the end of September 1760. The war obliged him to take the route of Vienna and Poland, and he was forced to embark at Ulm upon the Danube, tho' he knew that the fogs rendered the navigation of that river very ſlow and inconvenient; theſe fogs ſo much retarded him, that he did not arrive at Vienna till the 31ſt of October 1760.

He proceeded however to Peterſburg with all convenient ſpeed, and arrived there the 13th of February; but he was then no leſs than 800 leagues diſtant from Tobolſki, and he was obliged to furniſh himſelf with proviſions of all kinds for the whole journey, before he ſet out; being furniſhed alſo with a ſledge and an interpreter, he left Peterſburg the 10th of March; on the 14th he arrived at Moſcow, and proceeded forward on the 17th, travelling over the ice with an incredible ſwiftneſs, eſpecially on the rivers, where however he found many holes, there being ſeveral ſpots where the water had never frozen; and on the Docka, a ſpace of 100 fathom ſquare, tho' the ice round it was no leſs than three feet thick, and the cold ſo intenſe that brandy could not be kept liquid.

After he left Peterſburg, he met with no mountain that deſerved the name, for a long tract of country, but traverſed a vaſt plain, which in ſome parts was open, and in others covered with woods, conſiſting only of pine and birch. After croſſing the Wolga, at Niſni-Novogorod, he entered a foreſt, which was no leſs than 300 leagues in length; and indeed the whole of his route from Niſni-Novogorod to Tobolſki, which was little leſs than 500 leagues, might be conſidered as a continuation of that foreſt. The trees were of the ſame kind as in the wood already mentioned, but the ſnow was more conſiderable, being here at leaſt four feet deep, and the thermometer always 24 or 25 degrees below the freezing point.

As his courſe lay directly north, the cold grew more intenſe, and the ſnow deeper every day; the buildings were alſo more thinly ſcattered, ſo that he was often obliged to travel 25 or 30 leagues with the ſame horſes. The roads were ſo narrow, that the ſledges could ſcarce paſs, and if two met, it was neceſſary to lay one down on its ſide, before the other could go by: Thoſe who travel with the royal poſt command the way, and are known

known by a bell which the firſt horſe carries for that purpoſe. The abbé had half his ſledge carried away by the bad management of his poſtilion, when he was giving way to one of theſe carriages, and was obliged to proceed, quite open to the weather, till he arrived at Solikamſka; but the diſtance he leaves us to gueſs.

He came to this place on the 19th of March, extremely fatigued, having taken no nouriſhment but what was frozen for eleven days before, as in all that time he had not been able to procure the conveniency of a ſtove.

Solikamſka is a little town, ſituated upon the borders of the Kama; in the neighbourhood there are a few wretched ſalt-works, and ſome bad mines of copper. As he was obliged to wait here till he could be furniſhed with a new ſledge, he viſited theſe mines and ſalt-works; and in the ſalt-works he found ſeveral men ſcourging their bodies with twigs, till the ſkin was as red as ſcarlet; ſome minutes after they had deſiſted from this exerciſe, they ran out ſtark naked dropping with ſweat, and rolled themſelves in the ſnow. This ſight greatly ſurpriſed him; but, upon enquiry, he found it very common in that country.

From Solikamſka he ſet out on the 2d of April, and ſoon reached the mountains of Werkhotaurie, which form a chain, that may be conſidered as a branch of Mount Caucaſus; they commence to the ſouthward, and ſeparate Aſia from Europe, quite to the Frozen ſea. But this ridge is no where higher than from 50 to 80 fathoms, but the declivity is very ſteep, and the ſummit is covered with pine, birch, and fir. The way over theſe mountains is very frightful, and by night extremely dangerous; for if the ſledge deviates ever ſo little from the beaten track, the unfortunate traveller will inevitably be buried in a gulph of ſnow, which, when the abbé made his journey, was ready to melt; yet the talleſt firs were ſo loaded with it as to bend under the weight; it was every where ſeven feet thick upon the ground, and there was no ſign of returning ſpring, not ſo much as by the flight of a bird; for even the pies and crows, which abound through all Ruſſia, abandon theſe horrid deſerts, where nature herſelf ſeems benumbed, and it is only by the traces of the ſledge that the country is known to be inhabited. The gloom of deſolation ſurrounds it on every ſide, and a horrid ſilence, which is never broken but by the outcries of thoſe that ſuffer from the perils of the way. The inhabitants are ſhut up in their hovels nine months in the year; the ſnow appears upon the mountains in the beginning of September, and ſo great a quantity deſcends in a ſhort time afterwards as to leave ſcarce any traces of a habitation upon them. The inhabitants are then obliged to break a way through it, and it ſeldom begins to thaw there till the middle of April, though it gives ſomewhat ſooner in the plain; it does not totally diſappear till the end of May, ſo that the ſeverity of winter is ſuſpended only three months in the year, during which time however they ſow rye, oats, barley, and peaſe,

which they get in by the end of Auguſt; but none of them are perfectly ripe.

On the 5th of April the abbé had croſſed theſe mountains, which extend 45 leagues from eaſt to weſt; and then deſcended into a large plain, where the ſnow was ſo much diminiſhed, that in ſome places it ſcarce covered the ſurface of the ground.

On the 8th, he arrived at a ſmall town, called Tumen, where the ſnow lay only in the beaten tracks; he perceived water alſo on the ice that ſtill covered the rivers, which ſhewed the breaking up of the froſt to be at hand; he therefore puſhed forward with all poſſible expedition, and on the 10th of April arrived at Tobolſki, only ſix hours before the ice broke, having travelled 800 leagues upon a ſledge in a month. The melting of the ſnow cauſed ſo conſiderable an overflowing of the Irtis, that a fourth part of the town was under water.

The rapidity with which he traverſed this vaſt country did not permit him to examine the manners of the inhabitants with an attention equal to his wiſhes; but the account he has given of them is as follows:

They profeſs the religion of the Greek church, but with a fanaticiſm that ſeems gradually to increaſe with the diſtance from the capital. They are born in the moſt dreadful ſlavery, ſo that the very idea of liberty is not left among them. As their ſtate and ſituation do not admit the indulgence of artificial wants, their deſires are neceſſarily few; they have neither manufacture nor commerce; their proviſion is very bad, and therefore eaſily procured, conſiſting of dry or ſtinking fiſh, peaſe, and a coarſe black kind of bread, made of rye; their drink is a wretched kind of beer, and a liquor they call Quas, which is no other than water fermented with bran, and then mixed with a ſmall quantity of meal. They live in total idleneſs, and inactivity, ſhut up in their ſtoves, the extreme naſtineſs of which is not to be conceived; they are however fond of their condition, and hate the thoughts of ſtirring out of their dunghill, eſpecially to bear arms; but if they are forced into the ſervice, brandy, and the fear of puniſhment, will make them tolerable ſoldiers. The unwholeſomeneſs and inconvenience of their hovels are greatly increaſed by the ſeverity of the winter, which prevents their communication with the freſh air; their windows are ſeldom more than a foot wide, and ſix inches high; and they are alſo deprived of the light of the ſun all the while he is paſſing through the ſouthern ſigns; nor have they any artificial light but by ſplinters of birch wood, which they ſet on fire, and ſtick up in the chinks of the floor. This practice is indeed common through all Ruſſia, and frequently cauſes fires, which almoſt immediately ſpread over half a town, as the houſes are all built of wood, except in the cities and principal towns. But notwithſtanding all this inactivity, confinement, and naſtineſs, they enjoy robuſt and uninterrupted health; ſo effectually does perpetual temperance counterbalance all that can weigh againſt health and life. There is ſcarce one among them that

that is weakly or deformed, and their manner of education ſecures to them this good fortune. The child, as ſoon as it is born, is laid upon a heap of ſtraw, or old rags, in a baſket, where it ſprawls about, and ſtretches its limbs, without any reſtraint; it is nouriſhed with milk by means of a horn which is fitted to a cow's teats, but ſometimes ſuckled by the mother; the baſket is hung at the end of a long elaſtic pole, ſo that it may eaſily be put in motion, and the child rocked as in a cradle; but before it can go alone, it is placed upon the ground, where it rolls about at pleaſure, till it learns firſt to ſtand, and then to totter along, with nothing to cover it but a ſhirt, which ſcarce reaches to the middle of the thigh; by this management their children walk ſooner than ours can ſtand alone. As ſoon as they are able, they are ſuffered to run about, and at the end of the winter are playing in the road in the midſt of the ſnow, while the weather is ſtill ſo cold, that the traveller is afraid of going out of his ſledge, though he be covered with furr from head to foot. They are of a large ſtature, extremely muſcular and ſtrong, and live longer than the inhabitants of any other known part of the world; this, however, is not becauſe their ſituation, upon the whole, is favourable to life in the tender years of infancy, but the contrary; for all the children who are not ſtrong by conſtitution die ſoon, and none are reared but thoſe who are born with the greateſt natural advantages; more than two thirds of the children that are born here die in their infancy, and it is common to find but three or four alive, in families that have had 16 or 18. Many other cauſes concur gradually to depopulate the villages that are ſcattered thro' this vaſt deſart.

The ſmall pox frequently carries off half the inhabitants of one of theſe hamlets at a time, and ſometimes a greater proportion; the ſcurvy is alſo very fatal among them; and where they can procure ſpirituous liquors, the inroads of diſeaſe and mortality are in proportion to their want of the advantages which make intemperance leſs fatal in other places. The venereal diſeaſe alſo makes great havock among theſe unhappy wretches, to whom the method of cure is wholly unknown; it prevails ſo much in Siberia and Northern Tartary, that there is great reaſon to believe it will at length depopulate the country.

Tobolſki is the capital of Siberia, and contains about 15,000 inhabitants; the clergy conſiſts of about 50 monks or prieſts, three of whom, including the archbiſhop, all natives of Poland, are acquainted with the Latin tongue. The manners of the people are the ſame with thoſe already deſcribed, except that they are more corrupt. The women, of all ranks and ages, paint; they are in general very handſome, but have not the feminine ſoftneſs which is the principal charm of the ſex.

This city had once a conſiderable trade to China, by caravans; but the mutual knavery of the Ruſſian and Chineſe merchants, ſoon reduced it to a languiſhing ſtate; and ſome differences which aroſe

aroſe between the two powers have ſince totally deſtroyed it.

Theſe differences aroſe from a revolution which happened among the Rungore Calmucs, after the death of Galdan Tcherin, which happened in 1746. Galdan Tcherin was Kan, Caun, or ſovereign, of the nation which inhabited that part of Northern Tartary, which is ſituated between Siberia and China. This nation admitted no ſovereign but its kan, and upon the death of Galdan Tcherin a civil war broke out among ſeveral competitors to ſucceed him. The Chineſe, who dreaded the power of this nation, which was become formidable to all its neighbours, contrived firſt to weaken it on this occaſion, by favouring each of the competitors by turns, and then to fall upon the conqueror, and deſtroy his power at once.

The name of this unhappy prince was Amourſaman; and the wretched remains of this once mighty nation, conſiſting of about 20,000 families, took ſhelter under the protection of Ruſſia, upon the banks of the Wolga. Amourſaman, after having wandered from place to place, at laſt retired to the frontiers of Siberia, in 1757, where he died of the ſmall pox, according to the Ruſſian account, which was publiſhed about a year or two ago.

The Chineſe, as ſoon as they heard he had retired to Siberia, demanded that he ſhould be delivered up, or, as the Ruſſians ſay, that he ſhould be confined for life.

It is ſaid, that he continued a long time at Tobolſki, though the Ruſſian account makes no mention of it; and that when he was dead, the body was ſent to the frontiers of Siberia, whither the Chineſe ſent commiſſaries more than once to examine the body.

The abbé d'Auteroche left at Tobolſki two Calmuc ambaſſadors, who had been ſent to Peterſburg before the death of Amourſaman, and who, at their return to this city, learnt that their nation was no longer exiſting.

The abbé collected ſome of their idols, and ſome principles of their religion, which appears to be a ſtrange mixture of paganiſm, mahometaniſm and chriſtianity.

He returned by the way of Katerinburg, a city to the eaſt of the chain of mountains that has been juſt deſcribed; and in the neighbourhood of this place lie the greateſt part of the Ruſſian mines, which the abbé, as a ſpecial favour, was permitted to ſee. The mines of gold are in the plains, contrary to thoſe of all other countries, which are in the mountains; they are indicated by a ſandy, greyiſh earth, and the vein appears at two feet below the ſurface; its direction is generally north and ſouth, and it ſeldom reaches deeper than 14 fathom, below which they find water and red oker; the veins are parallel to each other, and the principal galleries perpendicular to the veins; the extent of the vein from N. to S. is from 20 to 30 fathom, and the width in the upper part, which is always the richeſt from 4 to 5 inches; it grows narrower as it deſcends, and contains leſs metal, which is contrary to the nature of all other mines yet known; the earth which divides one vein from another is ſandy, and in ſome places reſembles

reſembles a kind of clay dried and reduced to powder, ſo that they are generally obliged to ſhore the galleries with timber. The vein itſelf is a kind of rock, of a blackiſh colour, and mixed with earth, but may be broken between the fingers; many topazes are found among it, of the ſame kind with thoſe of Bohemia; but the produce of the mines, upon the whole, ſcarcely defrays the expence of working them. The ſilver mines are not worth mentioning, and the copper turn to very little account.

There are, however, mines of iron, which abundantly attone for the defects of the reſt: they are extremely rich, and the metal is the beſt of the kind in the world.

At Katerinburg there are alſo found marble, jaſper, porphyry, and other ſtones of the like kind, which abound in all parts of Siberia, where cornelians and ſardonixes are alſo found.

The abbé left Katerinburg on the 20th of September 1761, and arrived on the 24th at Sabarea, a ſmall hamlet ſituated on the ſouthern limits of Ruſſia, and inhabited by a people called Baſkirs, whom the Ruſſians found very difficult to bring under ſubjection, they conſidering themſelves as under the protection only of the Czar, and not his ſubjects. He propoſed to proceed by Kongour, which is the uſual route, but the way was then impaſſable; he therefore bent his courſe towards the Tartars, who are ſituated more to the ſouth, at ſome diſtance from Berna. Many of the inhabitants came out to meet him, and expreſſed the utmoſt kindneſs and cordiality, by a great variety of ſigns, which they teſtified alſo by their whole deportment and behaviour. They conducted him to the houſe of the chief of their hamlet, whom they hold in great veneration and eſteem: an entertainment was here prepared for him, conſiſting of garden-ſtuff, with butter and honey. The cottages of theſe people are as neat and convenient, as thoſe of the Siberians are naſty and ill contrived; their manner of life, however, is nearly the ſame, except that they are mahometans. They are of a large ſtature, robuſt and well-ſhaped, and have, in every reſpect, the appearance of a martial people: they have preſerved their ancient privileges inviolate, and, in time of war, furniſh Ruſſia with a certain number of troops, which ſhe takes into her pay. Theſe Tartars are, by nature, open, courteous, and liberal, and when the abbé took his leave of them, they doubled the number of horſes to his carriages, upon account of the mountains he was to paſs, and refuſed the acknowledgment he offered, not only for them, but the expence he had put them to while he was among them.

At a little diſtance from this place the way became very frightful, the mountains being extremely ſteep, and the rain having rendered them as ſlippery as glaſs, ſo that it was with the utmoſt difficulty the carriages were dragged to the top of the acclivity, though the company all aſcended on foot. The abbé being in the lighteſt carriage, puſhed on before, hoping to ſend aſſiſtance from the next village to the reſt, but he could

could get but about the fourth of a league from the place where he left them.

He was then on the borders of the river Tourka, in a bottom, ſurrounded by mountains on every ſide: here he made a great fire, and his company ranged themſelves about it; it was then near ten o'clock at night, and in about an hour the other carriages were diſcovered by the light of his fire. The Tartars who came with him then took the lead, and ſet fire to the firs at proper diſtances, which they found in the way, in order to light their companions behind. Theſe trees, which kindled from the bottom to the top in a minute, and were very lofty, did them great ſervice, and formed a moſt pleaſing and romantic ſcene by the wild country which they diſcovered, as it were, by torch-light, and the ſparks they threw out to a great diſtance.

From this place he proceeded on the 25th, at eleven in the morning, and arrived the ſame day at Piſſe. On the 28th he reached a village of Wotiacks, a people who are generally ſaid to be Tartars, but in whom the abbé found no reſemblance of that people: neither the men nor women are more than four feet high, and both are of a tender make and conſtitution; the habit of the men is the ſame with that of the Ruſſians, but that of the women is wholly different from all others, whimſical, but not unbecoming.

On the 29th, in the evening, he arrived on the borders of the river Wiatka, where he waited till the morning, the wind being too high to paſs the river (which is full of rocks) ſafely in the dark. During the night there fell ſo great a quantity of ſnow, that it was with the utmoſt difficulty he got to the ferry, though not diſtant more than 600 yards: they had already begun to paſs it in ſledges, and the abbé being unwilling to part with his carriages, hoping he ſhould ſoon leave the ſnow behind him, was obliged to double the number of horſes. On the 1ſt of October he arrived at Caſan, but not without great difficulty and labour, though he had no leſs than 42 horſes to draw two waggons and five chariots, for the laſt two days.

Caſan is a large city, the capital of a kingdom of the ſame name. It is governed by a Tartar prince, from whom the abbé received many favours, as he did alſo from the archbiſhop, a prelate of great learning, who is held in the higheſt veneration through all Ruſſia, and was, ſays the abbé, the only eccleſiaſtic I met with in all theſe vaſt dominions, who heard, without aſtoniſhment, that I went from France to Tobolſki to obſerve the tranſit of Venus.

His arrival at Caſan was like an entrance into a new world; the froſt had ſcarcely begun to ſtrip the trees of their leaves; he ſaw oaks for the firſt time ſince his reſidence in Ruſſia, orchards of fruit-trees, and cultivated encloſures; inſtead of thoſe boundleſs and deſolate plains which were ſcarce inhabited but by animals unknown in Europe, he ſaw green hills, groves, and gardens, where Nature was improved by Art, and where many flowers were ſtill in bloom.

Caſan ſtill preſerves ſome remains of its ancient opulence, and though

though its commerce is inconſiderable, yet it is the reſidence of many noble families, who form an agreeable ſociety, and even condeſcend to mix with their neighbours; the place abounds with all the neceſſaries and conveniencies of life, even to game and fiſh; the inhabitants have alſo white bread, which is as little known in Siberia as the pine-apple; indeed nothing is ſcarce at Caſan but wine.

He left Caſan on the 7th, and paſſed the Wolga the ſame day; and as he coaſted this river, he came among new nations, the Zeremiſes and the Souſvaſchi, of which he has recorded nothing but the names. In proportion as he approached Peterſburg, which is to the north of Caſan, the cold became more ſevere, and travelling more difficult; ſome rivers were already frozen, but the ice of others was not thick enough for the ſledge: he at length, however, arrived ſafely at Peterſburg, where he paſſed the winter, and as ſoon as the ſea was open in the ſpring, he embarked for France, where he arrived in Auguſt 1762, having been abſent near two years.

By aſtronomical obſervation he fixes the longitude of Caſan to be 3h. 8m. 37 ſ. eaſt of the meridian of Paris, and the latitude to be 55d. 43m. 58ſ.

The longitude of Tobolſki he fixes by obſervation alſo at 4 h. 23m. 54ſ. E. of the meridian of Paris. His account of the tranſit of Venus, the phænomenon which he went to obſerve, is leſs the object of general curioſity, and leſs capable of abridgment; for this, therefore, the learned, to whom alone it can be either uſeful or pleaſing, are referred to the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Paris for 1761.

An account of the journey up Mount Ætna. From the Latin of the late M. D'Orville, in a work, intituled Sicula, *or the* Hiſtory and Antiquities *of the Iſland of Sicily, &c. 2 vols. folio, publiſhed at Amſterdam.*

EArly in the morning of the 18th of July, M. D'Orville left Catanea and dined at a convent of Benedictines, about 14 miles from that city. Theſe fathers were gathering in their harveſt. As far as their monaſtery all the country was cultivated and very fertile. The little city of Ætna, or Ireſſa, is thought to have been formerly ſituated there. A little farther the ground riſes, and one muſt traverſe a vaſt foreſt, where our traveller ſaw the largeſt trees that he had ever obſerved, and had the moſt difficult roads to paſs for three or four miles of the way. After having clambered about 3000 paces, he found himſelf in a valley, where there was ſcarce any turf. Here he ſupped frugally with his fellow traveller, their mule-drivers, and ſervants: two guides, inhabitants of the village, came hither to lend them their aſſiſtance. They went two miles farther in a litter, but not without much hazard, till they came to a place named Caſtellucci, where all the company ſtopped in order to take ſome reſt in one of the caverns formed by the lava of the volcano, for beyond the Benedictines, they found no more houſes,

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and as soon as they had ascended as high as Castellucci, they saw no more trees, nor plants, nor verdure, but only ashes, and pumice stones which were covered with snow. It was cold, our travellers felt it very sensibly, though they were doubly provided with good cloaks, and though with some faggots, which they had picked up in their journey, they made a large fire at the entrance of the cavern, where one may easily suppose they did not rest long.

They set out from hence two hours before day, mounted on their mules, whose bridles their hands benumbed with cold held with difficulty. To see things distinctly, one must reach the top of the mountain before the sun has raised the vapours. The first thing remarkable that presented itself to M. D'Orville, at the foot of that ridge of the mountain where are the mouths of the volcano, was a great oblong block of marble, 8 or 10 feet high, and 3 or 4 thick; how it came there is unaccountable, for though what Despreaux has said, too poetically, from Longinus, that *Ætna throws from the depth of her abyss, stones, rocks, and floods of fire*; (which is impossible, on account of the size of its mouths, and of the vast resistance which the air makes to what comes out of them) though this, I say, were true, how could the volcano throw out this piece of marble, all polished? Some edifice must certainly have been there in former times. The temple of Vulcan was on the other side of the mountain.

Our traveller soon found himself at the top of the first mouth of Ætna, from whence he passed without stopping through a plain of sulphur and ashes, (a little like that of Salfatara, near Naples) which conducted him to the second and principal of the two openings; and though it was the 19th of July, all the way as he approached this gulph, he found snow under the ashes and sulphur on which he trod, while a few paces farther, he saw himself surrounded with flaming exhalations, which rose from place to place, as already particularly described by Silius, Claudian, Severus, Seneca, and some moderns.

The large mouth of Ætna may be about three or four miles in circumference. M. D'Orville and his fellow traveller, fastened to ropes which two or three men held at some distance, for fear of accidents, descended as near as possible to the brink of the gulph; but the small flames and smoke which issue from it on every side, and a greenish sulphur and pumice stones quite black, which covered the margin, would not permit them either to advance farther, or to extend their views to the bottom of this abyss. They only saw distinctly in the middle, a mass of matter which rose in the shape of a cone, to the height of above 60 feet, and which towards the base, as far as their sight could reach, might be from six to eight hundred. It was a mass of consumed lava which burnt no longer.

While our travellers had their eyes fixed on this substance, they perceived some motion on the north side, opposite to that on which they stood. Presently the mountain began to send forth smoke and ashes: this eruption was preceded by a sensible increase

in its internal roarings. M. D' Orville was not intimidated by them, he knew that Ætna ſeldom caſts forth flames and ſtones. Beſides, every thing generally falls back into its vaſt mouth. In ſhort, the motion did not laſt; after a moment's dilatation, as if to give it vent, the volcano reſumed its tranquillity. But this phænomenon might return, and the wind, which drove the vapours to the north, might, by changing, bring them to the ſouth, in which caſe, our curious obſervers would have run ſome riſk of being ſuffocated, as Pliny the elder was by Veſuvius. They therefore went towards their attendants, and immediately got to the top of that enormous heap of lava and ſtones, of aſhes and ſulphur, which having been accumulating for ſo many ages have raiſed mount Ætna above all Sicily.

Though few are capable of deſcribing ſo well as M. D'Orville, the immenſe and wonderful ſcene which preſented itſelf to his view the moment that the ſun had riſen above the horizon, yet it is eaſy to form from his deſcription ſome idea of this grand appearance. Our author could ſcarce tear himſelf from it. 'No delay, ſays he, 'would have ſeemed long to me, 'contemplating as it were at one 'view, the true ſituation of ſo ma'ny countries, cities, towns, hills, 'plains, iſlands, coaſts and ſeas; 'if my companions, fatigued with 'the journey, had not admoniſh'ed me, tired as I alſo was, to 'deſcend the mountain.' Once or twice he ſtill delightfully looked about him with eyes full of admiration, in order to imprint the proſpect in his mind, and never to forget its inexpreſſible beauties. 'Once and again, therefore, ſays 'he, I enjoyed the unparalleled 'pleaſure of that view, never 'more to be repeated, and ſatis'fied my eyes and my mind for 'the remainder of my life.' At laſt he left it, and having ſoon deſcended to the place where was the piece of marble, formerly mentioned, he there remounted, congratulating himſelf on the good ſucceſs with which his curioſity had been repaid.

Obſervations on the ſingular Phænomena of diſappearing and re-appearing rivers: with a deſcription of ſeveral ſuch rivers in Normandy, and other parts of France. From a memoir by Mr. Guettard, in the laſt volume of the hiſtory of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris.

THE farther we enquire into the works of nature, the more have we reaſon to admire them. It is remarkable alſo that our admiration ariſes more frequently from thoſe effects we have been accuſtomed to ſee than from our not being able to comprehend them. It is very ſurpriſing, if we reflect on it, that a river in its courſe, which is often very extenſive, ſhould not meet with ſpongious ſoils to ſwallow up its waters, or gulphs in which they are loſt: nevertheleſs, as there has been hitherto known but a ſmall number of rivers whoſe waters thus diſappear, this phænomenon has been accounted very extraordinary

dinary both by the ancients and moderns. Pliny ſpeaks of it with an energy familiar to him; and Seneca mentions it in his Queſtiones Naturales: he even diſtinguiſhes theſe rivers into two ſorts, thoſe that are loſt by degrees, and thoſe which are ſwallowed up all at once, or ingulphed: which would make one believe that the ancients had collected ſome obſervations concerning them.

But leaving apart what may be wonderful in theſe rivers, it may be aſked, how they are loſt? From what particular qualities of the ſoil over which they flow, and from what ſituation of the places through which they paſs, does this phænomenon ariſe? Upon this head we find but little light in authors. We might perhaps, be informed a great deal more, if the obſervations of the ancients had reached us.

M. Guettard has undertaken to remove part of this obſcurity, by deſcribing what he has obſerved in ſeveral rivers of Normandy, which are loſt and afterwards appear again: theſe are five in number, viz. the Rille, the Ithon, the Aure, the river of Sap-André, and the Drôme.

The three firſt diſappear gradually, and then come in ſight again; the fourth loſes itſelf entirely by degrees, but afterwards re-appears; the fifth loſes ſome of its water in its courſe, and ends by precipitating itſelf into a cavity, from whence it is never ſeen to riſe again.

What ſeems to occaſion the loſs of the Rille, the Ithon, and the Aure, is the nature of the ſoil through which they paſs. M. Guettard has obſerved that it is in general porous, and compoſed of a thick ſand, the grains of which are not well compacted together; it ſinks ſuddenly down by its own weight in ſome places, and there forms great holes; and when the water overflows the meadows, it frequently makes many cavities in ſeveral parts of them. If we therefore ſuppoſe inequalities in the channel of theſe rivers, and that there are certain places in which the water ſtagnates longer than in others, it muſt there dilute the ground, if we may uſe that expreſſion; and having carried away the parts which united the grains of ſand together, thoſe grains will become afterwards no other than a kind of ſieve, through which the waters will filtrate themſelves, provided nevertheleſs that they find paſſage under ground through which they may run. This conjecture appears to be ſo well founded, that each of theſe three rivers loſes itſelf nearly in the ſame manner, that is, through cavities which the people of the country call betoirs, and which ſwallow up more or leſs according to their largeneſs. M. Guettard, who has carefully examined them, remarks that theſe betoirs are holes in the form of a tunnel whoſe diameter and aperture is at leaſt two feet, and ſometimes exceeds eleven; and whoſe depth varies in like manner from one and two feet to five, ſix, and even twenty. The water generally gets into theſe cavities, when the river is not very high, making a gugling noiſe, and turning round in an eddy. A proof that waters are there filtered and abſorbed among the grains of this ſharp diluted ſand, is that frequently

quently in a betoir two or three feet deep, and through which a great deal of water is loſt, one cannot thruſt a ſtick farther than the ſurface of its bottom. Wherefore as theſe betoirs ſo frequently occur in the bed and banks of the Rille, the Ithon, and the Aure, it is not ſurpriſing that theſe rivers ſhould be thus loſt. The Rille during the ſummer ſeaſon loſes almoſt all its water in the ſpace of two ſhort leagues, the Ithon does very near the ſame; but M. Guettard obſerves ſomething curious concerning this river, to wit, that formerly, it was not loſt, but kept its courſe without any interruption, as appears by the hiſtory of the country: very likely, the mud which had been collected together in ſeveral parts of its channel, might have occaſioned the waters remaining in others, and thereby have cauſed many betoirs. This is the more likely, as the mud having been collected together in the bed of the river Aure, it appears that, in conſequence thereof, the cavities were greatly increaſed, which makes it loſe itſelf much ſooner than formerly; however it has been reſolved to cleanſe its channel to remedy this inconvenience. Beſides, poſſibly an earthquake happening in the country might have cauſed ſeveral ſubterraneous canals through which the water of the Ithon (which before very likely could not paſs through the ſoil beneath its bed) has forced its way. In effect it appears that a ſoil's being porous is not ſufficient to cauſe the loſs of a river; for if it were, then to do ſo it would occaſion many fens round about, nor would it renew its courſe after having diſappeared a certain time: it muſt beſides, as we have before ſaid, find ways under ground through which it may take its courſe. M. Guettard ſeems alſo much inclined to believe, that there are, in theſe parts, ſubterraneous cavities, through which the waters may flow; and in conſequence of this he reports a number of facts, all tending to prove the truth of it, or at leaſt to prove that there muſt be hollow quarries ſerving for ſtrainers to theſe waters. Upon which occaſion he goes into a diſcuſſion of this queſtion: Are there any ſubterraneous rivers, and is the prepoſſeſſion of ſome perſons in favour of this particular well founded? He makes appear by ſeveral inſtances which he quotes, and by many reaſons which he alledges, that there are at leaſt very great preſumptions in favour of this opinion. We are too apt not to look beyond the exterior of things: we feel reſiſtance upon the ſurface of the earth; when we go deep we often find it compact. It is therefore hard for us to imagine that it can contain ſubterraneous cavities ſufficient to form channels for hidden rivers, or for any conſiderable body of water; in a word, that it can contain vaſt caverns; and yet every thing ſeems to indicate the contrary. A fact that is obſerved in the betoirs of the rivers concerning which we have ſpoke, and particularly of the Rille, proves in ſome meaſure that there are conſiderable lakes of water in the mountains which limit its courſe: this fact is, that in winter the greateſt part of their betoirs become ſprings which ſupply a-new the river's channel with as much water as they had abſorbed from it during the ſummer. Now from

from whence can that water come, unleſs from the reſervoirs or lakes that are incloſed in the mountains, which being lower than the river in ſummer, abſorb its water, and being higher in winter by occaſion of the rain they receive, ſend it back again in their turn?

M. Guettard ſtrengthens this conjecture by ſeveral inſtances that render it very probable; he remarks at the ſame time, that this alternate effect of the betoirs ſwallowing up the water and reſtoring it again, cauſes perhaps an invincible obſtacle to the reſtraining of the water within the channel of the river. It has indeed been ſeveral times attempted to ſtop thoſe cavities, but the water returns with ſuch violence in winter that it generally carries away the materials with which they were ſtopped.

The river of Sap André is loſt in part, as we have before ſaid, in the ſame manner as the Ithon and the Rille; but there is ſomething more remarkable in it than in thoſe rivers, to wit; that at the extremity of its courſe, where there is no perceptible cavity, it is, as it were, ingulphed, but without any fall: the water paſſes between the pebbles, and it is impoſſible to force a ſtick into that place any further than into the betoirs of which we have ſpoke. What makes this river take that ſubterraneous direction, is an impediment which its ſtream meets with in that place: it is there ſtopped by a riſing ground ſix or ſeven feet high, whoſe bottom it has very likely undermined, to gain a free paſſage, not having been able to make its way over it. At ſome diſtance from thence it appears again; but in winter, as there is a greater quantity of water, it paſſes over that eminence, and keeps an uninterrupted courſe.

Laſtly, the Drôme, after having loſt ſome of its water in its courſe, vaniſhes entirely near the pit of Soucy: in that place it meets with a ſort of ſubterraneous cavity near twenty-five feet wide, and more than fifteen deep, where the river is in a manner ſtopped, and into which it enters, though without any perceptible motion, and never appears again.

We ſee by theſe obſervations of M. Guettard, that rivers which loſe themſelves are not ſo few as it is generally imagined, ſince there are five of them in this part of Normandy, which is but of ſmall extent. One might fancy that this is owing to the nature of the ground; yet, M. Guettard obſerves, that in a part of Lorrain, which likewiſe is not very extenſive, five other rivers are known to loſe themſelves in the ſame manner: and without doubt we ſhall find by new obſervations that they are much more common; for as we have remarked, it perhaps is not more ſurpriſing that a river loſes itſelf, than it is extraordinary that it does not ſo.

M. Guettard finiſhes this memoir with ſome obſervations upon the Ierre. This river is loſt in the ſame manner as the Rille; and though it is very near Paris, this ſingularity is unknown to almoſt every body; were it not for the account of M. l'Abbé le Boeuf, M. Guettard would have been alſo ignorant of it. And as he thinks the chief object of a naturaliſt's obſervations ought to be the public good, he examines the means

which might be employed to reſtrain the water of the ſerre. The ſame object has made him add a deſcription of the manner how the Rône is loſt, or rather how its courſe is diſturbed; for it is now very certain that it does not loſe itſelf, but that its channel is extremely confined, in the place where it was pretended that it loſt itſelf, by two mountains, between whoſe feet it runs. M. Guettard makes it appear that it might not be impoſſible to widen that place, and give a ſufficient channel to the river; which would render it navigable, and be of vaſt utility to all the country.

We may add to the above account, that we have in Surrey the river Mole, which riſes in Darking hundred, and, after a conſiderable courſe, paſſes by Whitchill, near Darking; a little beyond which this river hides itſelf, or is ſwallowed up in a cavern, at the foot of the hill, from whence Cambden ſays it is called the Swallow; he alſo takes notice of its running under ground for about two miles, and riſing again, and ſpreading itſelf into a wide ſtream. It is alſo frequently reported that there are ſeveral of theſe dipping rivers in Wales, and others in the ſouthern counties of England.

An account of the Plague at Aleppo, in a letter to the Rev. Charles Lyttelton, L. L. D. Dean of Exeter, now lord biſhop of Carliſle, and F. R. S. from the Reverend Mr. Thomas Dawes, Chaplain to the Factory at Aleppo. From the Philoſophical Tranſ. for 1763.

"THIS unhappy country for ſix years paſt has been in a very terrible ſituation, afflicted during the greateſt part of that time with many of the almighty's ſevereſt ſcourges. Its troubles were uſhered in by a very ſharp winter in 1756-7, which deſtroyed almoſt all the fruits of the earth. The cold was ſo very intenſe, that the mercury of Fahrenheit's thermometer, expoſed a few minutes to the open air, ſunk entirely into the ball of the tube. Millions of olive-trees, that had withſtood the ſeverity of fifty winters, were blaſted in this, and thouſands of ſouls periſhed merely through cold. The failure of a crop the ſucceeding harveſt occaſioned an univerſal ſcarcity, which in this country of indolence and oppreſſion (where proviſion is only made from hand to mouth, and where, literally ſpeaking, no man is ſure of reaping what he has ſown) ſoon introduced a famine, with all its attendant miſeries. The ſhocking accounts related to me on this ſubject, would appear fabulous were they not confirmed by numberleſs eye witneſſes, both Europeans and natives. In many places the inhabitants were driven to ſuch extremities, that women were known to eat their own children, as ſoon as they expired in their arms, for want of nouriſhment.—Numbers of perſons from the mountains and villages adjacent came daily to Aleppo, to offer their wives and children to ſale for a few dollars, to procure a temporary ſubſiſtence for themſelves: and hourly might be ſeen in our ſtreets dogs and human creatures ſcratching together on the ſame dunghill, and quarrelling for a bone or piece of carrion, to allay their hunger. A peſtilence followed cloſe to the heels of the famine,

famine, which laſted the greateſt part of 1758, and is ſuppoſed to have ſwept away 50 or 60 thouſand ſouls in this city and its environs. I bleſs God, I was not a ſpectator of this complicated ſcene of miſery: the very deſcription of it muſt diſtreſs a compaſſionate diſpoſition; the ſight of it muſt have made an impreſſion on an heart of flint.

I have already acquainted you, in a former letter, with our troubles by earthquakes, &c. of 1759, and 1760, and therefore ſhall proceed from the date of my laſt letter. The latter end of March 1761, the plague, which had lain dormant ſince autumn, made its appearance again in this city, and alarmed us conſiderably. Though I confeſs, it did not ſurpriſe me; ſo far from not expecting its return, I ſhould have looked on it almoſt as a miracle if we had eſcaped, after the little progreſs it had made among us the preceding year. The infection crept gently and gradually on, confined chiefly to one particular quarter till the beginning of May, when it began to ſpread viſibly and univerſally. We ſhut up on the 27th, and our confinement laſted 96 days. The fury indeed of the contagion did not continue longer than the middle of July, and many of our merchants went abroad with caution early in Auguſt; but as our conſul had no urgent buſineſs to induce him to expoſe himſelf to any riſk, we remained in cloſe quarters till we could viſit our friends with tolerable ſecurity. As an addition to the uneaſineſs of our ſituation, the earthquakes returned the latter end of April, though with no great violence, except the firſt ſhock, and that much leſs terrible than thoſe of 1759. We felt ſix or ſeven within the week, and four more at long intervals during our impriſonment; but as they were all ſlight, our apprehenſions ſoon ſubſided. At our releaſe from confinement the laſt day of Auguſt, we flattered ourſelves with the hope of a ſpeedy releaſe from danger; but it pleaſed God to order it otherwiſe. In all the plagues with which Aleppo has been viſited in this century, the contagion is ſaid to have regularly and conſtantly ceaſed in Auguſt or September, the hotteſt months in the year; and it is pretty certain that it diſappeared about that time in 1742, 1743, 1744, and 1760; but unfortunately for us that now reſide here, the year 1761 has proved an inſtance of the fallacy of general obſervations on this dreadful ſubject; for, from the end of March 1761, to the middle of September 1762, ſcarce a day has paſſed without ſome deaths or freſh attacks from the diſtemper; and though the violence of it ceaſed in the autumn, yet I believe, on an average, it was fatal to at leaſt 30 perſons in every week, from that time to the end of the winter. In February laſt we were pretty healthy: hearing but of few accidents, and thoſe in the ſkirts of the city, we once more began to entertain ſome faint hopes of a farther exemption, but they were of very ſhort duration; In March the infection ſpread again, and in April increaſed with ſuch rapidity, that we were obliged to retire to our cloſe quarters on the 26th of that month. I have now the ſatisfaction of informing you that, by the bleſſing of providence, we are once more ſafe and at liberty, though after a confine-

ment more tedious, and much more dismal than even that of the last year; we got abroad on the 18th of Aug. when the burials were reduced to about 20 a day: the infection gradually decreased till the middle of September, since which time we have heard of no accident. May the Almighty graciously be pleased to prevent the return of a distemper, whose very name strikes terror whenever it is mentioned, and is undoubtedly one of the most lamentable misfortunes that mankind is liable to.

I wish I could with any precision determine our loss in the two last summers; but in times of such general horror and confusion, it is in a manner impossible to come at the exact truth. If you enquire of the natives, they swell the account each year from 40 to 60 thousand, and some even higher; but, as the eastern disposition to exaggeration reigns almost universally, little accuracy is to be expected from them. This, however, is certain, that the mortality of this year has been very considerable, perhaps not much inferior to any in this century. Some of the Europeans have been at no small pains and expence to procure a regular and daily list of the funerals during our confinement, and their account amounts to about twenty thousand, from the 1st of April to the 1st of September this year, and about one third less the preceding summer. This calculation I am inclined to think is pretty right, though there are some strong objections against a probability of being able to procure a just one in such circumstances; for the Turks keep no register of the dead, and have seventy-two different public burial places in the seven miles circumference of the city, besides many private ones within the walls. The Christians and Jews, who are supposed to be rather less than a seventh part of the number of inhabitants, have registers, and each nation one burial place only; their loss this year is about 3,500 in the five months.

I will not shock your compassionate disposition by a detail of the miseries I have been witness to, but only mention, that during the months of June and July, (in the greatest part of which the burials were from 2 to 300 a day,) the noise of men singing before the corps in the day, and the shrieks of women for the dead both day and night, were seldom out of our ears. Custom soon rendered the first familiar to me, but nothing could reconcile me to the last; and as the heat obliges us to sleep upon the terraces of our houses in the summer, many of my nights rest were disturbed by these alarms of death.

I bless God, all my countrymen have been so fortunate as to escape any infection in their houses, though each year four or five Europeans have been carried off, and each year the plague broke out in two houses that join to ours. In one of them this year died a Franciscan priest, after two days illness, whose bed was placed about six yards distant from mine. I believe I was in no great danger, as a wall nine or ten feet high separated our terraces; but had I known his situation I should have moved farther off. The year before, I was thrown into a very great agitation of mind for a few days, by the death of my laundress's husband;

husband; the very day he died of the plague, my servant had received my linen from his house, and I had carelessly put on some of it, even without airing. This accident happened many weeks after we were open, and his illness was industriously kept a secret. The last month of my confinement this year passed very heavily with me indeed; for I found my health much disordered. Whether it proceded from a cold I catched in my head by sleeping in the open air in some very windy nights, from want of exercise, or from the uneasiness of mind naturally attending our melancholy situation, I know not; but my nerves seemed all relaxed, my spirits in a state of dejection unknown to me before, and my head so heavy and confused, that I could neither write nor read for an hour together with application or pleasure. Since our release, I have passed a month at a garden about an hour's ride from the city, for the sake of exercise and fresh air, and find myself much relieved by it, though my head is far from being yet clear.

Among many particulars relating to the present plague that I have heard, the following anecdotes seem somewhat extraordinary; and yet, as they are well attested, I have no reason to doubt of the truth of them; viz. last year as well as this, there has been more than one instance of a woman's being delivered of an infected child, with the plague sores on its body, though the mother herself has been entirely free from the distemper.

A woman, that suckled her own child of five months, was seized with a most severe plague, and died after a week's illness; but the child, though it sucked her, and lay in the same bed with her during her whole disorder, escaped the infection. A woman upwards of an hundred years of age was attacked with the plague, and recovered: her two grandchildren of ten and sixteen received the infection from her, and were both carried off by it.

While the plague was making terrible ravage in the island of Cyprus, in the spring of 1760, a woman remarkably sanguine and corpulent, after losing her husband and two children, who died of the plague in her arms, made it her daily employment, from a principle of charity, to attend all her sick neighbours, that stood in need of her assistance, and yet escaped the infection. Also a Greek lad made it his business for many months to wait on the sick, to wash, dress, and bury the dead, and yet he remained unhurt. In that contagion ten men were said to die to one woman; but the persons, to whom it was almost universally fatal, were youths of both sexes. Many places were left so bare of inhabitants, as not to have enough left to gather in the fruits of the earth. It ceased entirely in July 1760, and has not appeared in the island since.

The plague seems this year to have been in a manner general over a great part of the Ottoman empire. We have advice of the havoc it has made at Constantinople, Smyrna, Salonicha, Brusa, Adena, Antioch, Antab, Killis, Oursah, Diarbekir, Mousol, and many other large towns and villages. Scanderoon, for the first time, I believe, this century, has suffered

ſuffered conſiderably: the other Frank ſettlements on the ſea coaſt of Syria have been exempted, except a few accidents at Tripoli, which drove the Engliſh conſul, Mr. Abbot, into a cloſe retirement for a week or two; but the ſtorm ſoon blew over."

Account of giants, from a memoir lately read before the academy of Sciences of Rouen. By M. Le Cat.

THE bible mentions ſeveral races of giants, as the Rephaims, the Anakims, the Emims, the Zonzonims, and others. Profane hiſtorians alſo mention giants: they gave ſeven feet of height to Hercules their firſt hero, and in our days we have ſeen men eight feet high. The giant who was ſhewn in Rouen, in 1735, meaſured eight feet ſome inches. The emperor Maximin was of that ſize; Skenkius and Platerus, phyſicians of the laſt century, ſaw ſeveral of that ſtature; and Goropius ſaw a girl who was ten feet high.

The body of Oreſtes, according to the Greeks, was eleven feet and a half; the giant Galbara, brought from Arabia to Rome, under Claudius Cæſar, was near ten feet; and the bones of Secondilla and Puſio, keepers of the gardens of Salluſt, were but ſix inches ſhorter.

Funnam, a Scotſman, who lived in the time of Eugene the ſecond, king of Scotland, meaſured eleven feet and a half; and Jacob le Maire, in his Voyage to the Streights of Magellan, reports, that the 17th of December, 1615, they found at Port Deſire ſeveral graves covered with ſtones, and having the curioſity to remove the ſtones, they diſcovered human ſkeletons of ten and eleven feet long.

The chev. Scory, in his voyage to the Pike of Teneriffe, ſays, that they found in one of the ſepulchral caverns of that mountain, the head of a Guanche which had 80 teeth, and that the body was not leſs than 15 feet long.

The giant Ferragus, ſlain by Orlando, nephew of Charlemain, was 18 feet high.

Rioland, a celebrated anatomiſt, who wrote in 1614, ſays, that ſome years before, there was to be ſeen in the ſuburbs of St. Germain, the tomb of the giant Iſoret, who was 20 feet high.

In Rouen, in 1509, in digging in the ditches near the Dominicans, they found a ſtone tomb containing a ſkeleton whoſe ſkull held a buſhel of corn, and whoſe ſhin-bone reached up to the girdle of the talleſt man there, being about four feet long, and conſequently the body muſt have been ſeventeen or eighteen feet high. Upon the tomb was a plate of copper, whereon was engraved, "In this tomb lies the noble and puiſſant Lord, the Chevalier Ricon de Vallemont, and his bones." Platerus, a famous phyſician, declares, that he ſaw at Lucerne, the true human bones of a ſubject, which muſt have been at leaſt 19 feet high.

Valence in Dauphiné, boaſts of poſſeſſing the bones of the giant Bucart, tyrant of the Vivarais, who was ſlain by an arrow by the count de Cabillon his vaſſal. The Dominicans had a part of the ſhin bone, with the articulation of the knee, and his figure painted in freſco, with an inſcription, ſhewing, that this giant was 22 feet and an

an half high, and that his bones were found in 1705, near the banks of the Morderi, a little river at the foot of the mountain of Cruſol, upon which (tradition ſays) the giant dwelt.

January 11, 1613, ſome maſons digging near the ruins of a caſtle in Dauphiné, in a field, which, by tradition, had long been called the giant's field, at the depth of 18 feet, diſcovered a brick tomb, 30 feet long, 12 feet wide, and 8 feet high; on which was a grey ſtone, with the words Theutobochus Rex cut thereon. When the tomb was opened, they found a human ſkeleton entire, 25 feet and a half long, 10 feet wide acroſs the ſhoulders, and 5 feet deep from the breaſt bone to the back. His teeth were about the ſize each of an ox's foot, and his ſhin-bone meaſured four feet.

Near Mazarino, in Sicily, in 1516, was found a giant 30 feet high; his head was the ſize of an hogſhead, and each of his teeth weighed 5 ounces.

Near Palermo, in the valley of Mazara, in Sicily, a ſkeleton of a giant, 30 feet long, was found, in the year 1548; and another of 33 feet high, in 1550; and many curious perſons have preſerved ſeveral of theſe gigantic bones.

The Athenians found, near their city, two famous ſkeletons, one of 34, and the other of 36 feet high.

At Totu, in Bohemia, in 758, was found a ſkeleton, the head of which could ſcarce be encompaſſed by the arms of two men together; and whoſe legs, which they ſtill keep in the caſtle of that city, were 26 feet long.

The ſkull of the giant found in Macedonia, Sept. 1691, held 210lb. of corn.

The celebrated Sir Hans Sloane, who treated this matter very learnedly, does not doubt theſe facts, but thinks the bones were thoſe of elephants, whales, or other enormous animals.

Elephants bones may be ſhewn for thoſe of giants; but they can never impoſe on connoiſſeurs.

Whales, which, by their immenſe bulk, are more proper to be ſubſtituted for the largeſt giants, have neither arms nor legs; and the head of that animal hath not the leaſt reſemblance with that of a man. If it be true, therefore, that a great number of the gigantic bones, which we have mentioned, have been ſeen by anatomiſts, and have by them been reputed real human bones, the exiſtence of giants is proved.

An account of the extraordinary and ſudden growth of a child.

JAMES VIALA, a native of the hamlet of Bouzanquet, in the dioceſe of Alais, though of a ſtrong conſtitution, appeared to be knit and ſtiff in his joints till he was about four years and a half old. During this time nothing farther was remarkable of him than an extraordinary appetite, which was ſatisfied no otherwiſe than by giving him plenty of the common aliments of the inhabitants of the country, conſiſting of rye bread, cheſnuts, bacon and water; but, his limbs ſoon becoming ſupple and pliable, and his body beginning to expand itſelf, he grew up in ſo extraordinary

nary a manner, that at the age of five years he meaſured four feet three inches; ſome months after, he was four feet eleven inches; and, at ſix, five feet, and bulky in proportion. His growth was ſo rapid, that one might fancy he ſaw him grow; every month his cloaths required to be made longer and wider; and, what was ſtill very extraordinary in his growth, it was not preceded by any ſickneſs, nor accompanied by any pain in the groin or elſewhere, and no complaint was made of any inconveniency but hunger, which the child was very ſenſible of from one meal to another.

At the age of five years his voice changed, his beard began to appear, and at ſix he had as much as a man of thirty; in ſhort, all the unqueſtionable marks of puberty were viſible in him. It was not doubted in the country but that this child was, at five years old, or five and a half, in a condition of begetting other children; which induced the rector of the pariſh to recommend to his mother that ſhe would keep him from too familiar a converſation with children of the other ſex. Though his wit was riper than is commonly obſervable at the age of five or ſix years, yet its progreſs was not in proportion to that of his body. His air and manner ſtill retained ſomething childiſh, though by his bulk and ſtature he reſembled a complete man, which at firſt ſight produced a very ſingular contraſt. However, it might be ſaid that all was uniform in him, and he might be conſidered as an adult, though ſtill far from being ſo; his voice was ſtrong and manly, and few heard him ſpeak without ſome emotion and ſurpriſe. His great ſtrength rendered him already fit for the labours of the country. At the age of five years he could carry to a good diſtance three meaſures of rye, weighing eighty-four pounds; when turned of ſix, he could lift up eaſily on his ſhoulders, and carry loads of a hundred and fifty pounds weight, a good way off; and theſe exerciſes were exhibited by him, as often as the curious engaged him thereto by ſome liberality.

Such beginnings made people think that young Viala would ſoon ſhoot up into a giant. A mountebank was already ſolliciting his parents for him, and flattering them with hopes of putting him in a way of making a great fortune. But all theſe fine hopes ſuddenly vaniſhed. His legs became crooked, his body ſhrunk, his ſtrength diminiſhed, and his voice grew ſenſibly weaker. This ſad alteration was attributed to the imprudent trials he was let to make of his ſtrength; perhaps alſo it was occaſioned by nature's ſuffering in ſo rapid an extenſion. He is now juſt as he was at the age of ſix or ſeven years, and in a kind of imbecility. His parents were rather under the middle ſize, and their growth had nothing particular in it.

Noel Fiſchet, another ſwift grower of the human ſpecies, began to grow ſooner but not ſo rapidly, for he was twelve years old, before he meaſured five feet; his ſigns of puberty were at the age of two years, which makes between them a very remarkable difference; and the ſlower progreſs

greſs of his growth was perhaps the cauſe of his not experiencing the bad conſequences that attended Viala.

It is aſtoniſhing that children of ſo prodigious and early a growth, do not afterwards become giants; yet it is not perhaps ſo ſingular, if they have at the ſame time the ſigns of puberty. Theſe ſhew in all animals that they are approaching their ſtate of perfection. Thus, when they appear in children at the ſame time that they ſhoot up in ſo extraordinary a manner, they prove perhaps nothing more than a mere rapid expanſion, as in hot climates; but not that the individual will be of a gigantic ſtature. For this purpoſe, it would be neceſſary that puberty, inſtead of accompanying this great growth, ſhould not manifeſt itſelf till the uſual time, or perhaps after.

Remarks on ſwallows on the Rhine: In a letter from Mr. Achard to Mr. Peter Collinſon, dated September 7, 1762. From the Philoſophical Tranſactions for 1763.

IN the latter end of March, I took my paſſage down the Rhine to Rotterdam: a little below Baſil the ſouth bank of the river was very high and ſteep, of a ſandy ſoil, ſixty or eighty feet above the water.

I was ſurpriſed at ſeeing near the top of the cliff ſome boys tied with ropes, hanging down doing ſomething: the ſingularity of theſe adventurous boys, and the buſineſs they ſo daringly attempted, made us ſtop our navigation to enquire into the meaning of it. The watermen told us they were ſearching the holes in the cliff for ſwallows or martins, which took refuge in them, and lodged there all the winter, until warm weather, and then they came abroad again.

The boys, being let down by their comrades to the holes, put in a long rammer with a ſcrew at the end, ſuch as is uſed to unload guns, and, twiſting it about, drew out the birds. For a trifle I procured ſome of them. When I firſt had them, they ſeemed ſtiff and lifeleſs. I put one in my boſom, between my ſkin and ſhirt, and laid another on a board, the ſun ſhining full and warm upon it. One or two of my companions did the like.

That in my boſom revived in about a quarter of an hour; feeling it move, I took it out to look at it, and ſaw it ſtretch itſelf on my hand; but perceiving it not ſufficiently come to itſelf, I put it in again. In about another quarter, feeling it flutter pretty briſkly, I took it out and admired it. Being now perfectly recovered, before I was aware, it took its flight; the covering of the boat prevented me from ſeeing where it went. The bird on the board, though expoſed to a full ſun, yet I preſume, from a chilly-neſs in the air, did not revive to be able to fly.

Remarks by Mr. Collinſon.

What I collect from this gentleman's relation is, that it was the practice of the boys annually to take theſe birds, by their apparatus and ready method of doing it; and the frequency of it was no remarkable thing to the water-

watermen. Next it confirmed my former ſentiments, that ſome of this ſwallow tribe go away, and ſome ſtay behind, in theſe dormitories, all the winter. If my friend had been particular as to the ſpecies, it would have ſettled that point.

An account of the inſect called the Vegetable Fly: by William Watſon, M. D. F. R. S. From the Philoſophical Tranſactions for 1763.

THE beginning of laſt month, I received a letter from our learned and ingenious member, Dr. Huxham of Plymouth; in which, among other things, he informed me, that he lately had, by permiſſion of commiſſioner Rogers, obtained a ſight of what is called the vegetable fly, with the following deſcription of it; both which he had from Mr. Newman, an officer of general Duroure's regiment, who came from the iſland Dominica. As this deſcription ſeemed to the doctor exceedingly curious, he has ſent it me, exactly tranſcribed from Mr. Newman's account, and is as follows:

'The vegetable fly is found in the iſland Dominica, and (excepting that it has no wings) reſembles the drone, both in ſize and colour, more than any other Engliſh inſect. In the month of May it buries itſelf in the earth, and begins to vegetate. By the latter end of July the tree is arrived at its full growth, and reſembles a coral branch; and is about three inches high, and bears ſeveral little pods, which dropping off become worms, and from thence flies, like the Engliſh caterpillar.' An account of this extraordinary production, ſimilar to the above, was given to Dr. Huxham by captain Gaſcoign, who lately commanded the Dublin man of war, which hath been at Dominica. The doctor ſubjoins, that poſſibly I may have heard of this fly, or ſeen it in the collections of the Britiſh muſeum, or royal ſociety; but, if it is in neither, he believes he can procure it to be ſent to the royal ſociety.

Though the doctor can by no means think the above relation true in all its circumſtances, yet he is perſuaded there is ſomething of reality in it; which perhaps further accounts and obſervations may ſet in a full and true light; though at preſent, as repreſented, it ſeems quite repugnant to the uſual order of nature.

As I had never ſeen this production myſelf, but had been informed that doctor Hill had had the examination of ſome of them, I wrote to that gentleman to deſire to be informed of the reſult of his inquiries; to which he very obligingly ſent me the following anſwer:

'When colonel Melvil brought theſe flies from Guadeloupe, lord Bute ſent me the box of them to examine. The reſult was this: There is in Martinique a fungus of the Clavaria kind, different in ſpecies from thoſe hitherto known. It produces ſoboles from its ſides, I call it therefore Clavaria ſobolifera. It grows on putrid animal bodies, as our fungus ex pede equino, from the dead horſes hoof.

The cicada is common in Marti-

Martinique, and in its nympha ſtate, in which the old authors call it tettigometra, it buries itſelf under dead leaves to wait its change; and, when the ſeaſon is unfavourable, many periſh. The ſeeds of the clavaria find a proper bed on this dead inſect, and grow.

The tettigometra is among the cicadæ in the Britiſh muſeum; the clavaria is juſt now known.

This you may be aſſured is the fact, and all the fact; though the untaught inhabitants ſuppoſe a fly to vegetate; and though there exiſts a Spaniſh drawing of the plant's growing into a trifoliate tree; and it has been figured with the creature flying with this tree upon its back.

'So wild are the imaginations of man; ſo chaſte and uniform is nature!'

Commiſſioner Rogers, at Dr. Huxham's deſire, has preſented this extraordinary production to the royal ſociety, and it now lies before you.

A careful examination of it ſeems to confirm, to me at leaſt, Dr. Hill's opinion of the manner of this phænomenon's being produced.

The ingenious Mr. Edwards has taken notice of this extraordinary production, in his Gleanings of natural hiſtory, and has given us a figure of it in that elegant work.

There is in the Britiſh muſeum, among the cicadæ, one nearly reſembling the animal part of the production before you; but it came from the Eaſt-Indies. There is likewiſe, from the Weſt-Indies, in its perfect or winged ſtate, the inſect of which this production is believed to be the nympha.

Nov. 15, 1763.

An account of a remarkable fiſh, taken in King Road, near Briſtol: In a letter from Mr. James Ferguſon, to Thomas Birch, D. D. Secretary to the royal ſociety. From the Philoſophical Tranſactions for 1763.

Briſtol, May 5, 1763.

THE length of the fiſh is four feet nine inches, and its thickneſs where greateſt, or in the middle, about 15 inches. The mouth is a foot in width, and of a ſquariſh form: it has three rows of ſharp ſmall teeth, very irregularly ſet, and at ſome diſtance from each other: it has no tongue, nor narrow gullet, but is all the way down, as far as one can ſee, like a great hollow tube: in the back of the mouth within, there are two openings like noſtrils; and about nine inches below the jaw, and under theſe openings, are two large knobs, from which proceed ſeveral ſhort teeth; a little below which, on the breaſt ſide, is another knob with ſuch teeth.—On each ſide within, and about a foot below the jaws, there are three croſs ribs ſomewhat reſembling the ſtreight bars of a chimney grate, about an inch diſtant from each other; through which we ſee into a great cavity within the ſkin, towards the breaſt; and under the ſkin, theſe cavities are kept diſtended by longitudinal ribs, plain to the touch on the outſide. I put my arm down through the mouth, quite to my ſhoulder, but could feel

nothing in the way; ſo that its heart, ſtomach, and bowels, muſt lie in a very little compaſs near its tail, the body thereabout being very ſmall.

From the neck proceed two long horns, hard and very elaſtic, not jointed by rings as in lobſters: And on each ſide of the back there are two conſiderable ſharp-edged riſings, of a black and long ſubſtance. Between each eye and the breaſt, there is a cavity ſomewhat like the inſide of a human ear; but it doth not penetrate to the inſide. From each ſhoulder proceeds a ſtrong muſcular fin, cloſe by which, towards the breaſt, is an opening, through which one may thruſt his hand and arm quite up through the mouth: and between theſe fins proceed from the breaſt two ſhort paws, ſomewhat like the fore half of a human foot, with five toes joined together, having the appearance of nails. Near the tail are two large fins, one on the back, the other under the belly. The ſkin is of a dark brown colour, but darker ſpotted in ſeveral places, and entirely without ſcales.

Nature the beſt miſtreſs in huſbandry.

WHoever applies himſelf to the ſtudy of plants will be ſoon agreeably ſurpriſed with the capacious field it opens for enquiry, where the human mind may range at large, and every day make freſh diſcoveries equally uſeful and entertaining. If, for inſtance, we attentively conſider the circumſtances in which particular vegetables are ſpontaneouſly produced, we ſhall immediately diſcover a ſure and ſucceſsful method of cultivating them by art. Linnæus juſtly obſerves, in a curious paper upon this ſubject, in the firſt volume of the Swediſh Acts, that the directions given in many books of gardening are founded merely on random practice; it being from wild plants alone that a rational method of culture can be deduced. He adds, that all plants grow ſomewhere wild, and that the buſineſs of art is to imitate their natural climate, or the joint concurrence of earth, air, water, and heat.

The earths or ſoils in which vegetables grow, are far from being ſuch ſimple bodies as moſt people apprehend. They are compounded of all the kinds of mineral earths, together with that into which animal and vegetable ſubſtances themſelves are reſolved by putrefaction, and blended together in various proportions. They may, however, be commodiouſly ranged, in regard to the preſent enquiry, into four claſſes, according to the particular ingredient which prevails in the compoſition: clayey, chalky, ſandy, including thoſe which abound either with ſand itſelf, or with ſuch other earthy, or ſtony particles, as do not in the leaſt imbibe, or are affected by water; and black vegetable and animal mould. Each of theſe ſoils produces plants peculiar to itſelf, and which degenerate or periſh in others. It is on ſandy hills that the fir and other reſinous trees attain to their vigour, and ſhed the turpentines and balſams: the galeopſes,

galeopſes, as the abovementioned author obſerves, are the natural growth of black earth, and die in ſand, whilſt the ornithopus flouriſhes in ſand, and periſhes in a black mould.

Under air may be included the viciſſitudes of ſolar light diffuſed throughout the atmoſphere; which light ſeems to affect vegetables independently of heat, and in a manner hitherto inexplicable. All plants grow weak and ſlender in the confined air of hot-houſes, and much more ſo if the ſolar light is excluded. Plants, whoſe flowers are naturally the moſt odoriferous, if raiſed in a perfectly dark place, with all the advantages of warmth, moiſture, &c. either do not flower at all, or bring forth flowers which have hardly any ſmell. The jeſſamine-tree, whilſt it covers the out-ſide of a wall with its fragrant flowers, is not obſerved to produce a ſingle one upon ſuch branches as have forced their way within, even into a warm, an airy, and a light room. High hills, in different parts of the world, the Lapland crags, the Alps, Olympus, and Ararat, bring forth ſimilar plants, many of which are never met with in lower grounds. Theſe plants grow extremely quick, nature making amends for their ſhortneſs of ſummer, by a continual agitation and renewal of air: they are ſmall, but loaded with innumerable ſeeds. Removed into gardens, they grow more ſlowly to a larger ſize, but abort, or produce little fruit.

River, ſtagnant, ſpring, and ſea-waters, and watery and dry ſoils, have each their peculiar plants; ſucculent plants rot from the quantity of water which many others require. It is obſervable, however, that land, as well as aquatic vegetables, may be raiſed and ſupported for a length of time, by placing the little roots, waſhed clean from the earth, in water alone. It ſeems as if water and air, or the contents of waters, and of the atmoſphere, were univerſally the immediate matter which affords aliment to vegetables; as if the earth ſerved only as a matrix for vegetables to keep them firm, and to preſerve moiſture about the roots; as if the difference of ſoils conſiſted wholly in their being more or leſs ſoft or compact, ſo as to be eaſily or difficultly penetrated by the tender roots, and in their more or leſs readily imbibing and effectually retaining water. Thus clay abſorbs water very ſlowly and difficultly, its particles expanding in proportion as they are moiſtened, ſo as to prevent the further progreſs of the liquor: if water be poured into a cavity made in a lump of dry clay, great part of it evaporates without being ſoaked in. Chalk, on the other hand, very quickly imbibes water, tranſmits it to every part of the maſs, and does not eaſily let it go; whilſt ſand ſuffers it to percolate inſtantaneouſly through the interſtices of the grains, without imbibing any into its ſubſtance.

With regard to heat, the plants of the torrid zone require, according to Linnæus, between the fiftieth and ſixtieth degree of Fahrenheit's thermometer; thoſe of the temperately warm, as the ſouthern parts of Europe, the Cape, Japan, China, between the

thirtieth and fortieth; those of the temperately cold, not above thirty-eight. These seem to be nearly the mean degrees of heat of the respective climates. The plants of cold climates will not bear the heat of warm ones, any more than those of the warm can support the cold: some of the Cape plants, in the heat of the torrid zone, grew at first amazingly, but soon after they lost their leaves, and were with difficulty kept alive. In this, however, there is a considerable latitude: plants may be raised in a climate not their own, provided the difference is not very great; by degrees they become as it were naturalized to it; if once they have produced seeds, these seeds are much less apt to miscarry, and produce hardier plants than such as are brought immediately from their native country. Tobacco, from seeds of our own growth, ripens a month sooner than such as is raised from foreign seeds.

It was by following nature, that the ingenious botanist above-mentioned has been so successful in bringing up the vast variety of plants that have fallen under his care. The *rubus caule unifloro foliis ternatis* was some time ago, he tells us, thought incapable of being raised about Stockholm, till attention to its natural climate taught to keep it covered with snow during the winter, and great part of the spring. Musa, the most specious plant in nature, had stood near an hundred years in the Dutch botanic garden, and could not be made to blow: on considering that its native country Surinam, where the weather is dry for one half-year, and rainy the next, it was kept long without water, and afterwards kept watered abundantly: it now flowered, and perfected its fruit; and by the same management, another musa was made to flower the next year.

He observes, that we can easily imitate nature in regard to earth, water, and the degree of heat; and wishes we could equally imitate her in the renewals and agitations of the air. This also it is in the power of art to effect. The principle, that warm air ascends above cold, affords means of obtaining constant changes and successions of air, wherever there is warmth and cold.

Dr. Hales has applied this principle to the improvement of common hot-beds. If an aperture is made in the top of one end of the frame, and at the bottom of the other, and a descending pipe inserted into this last, a stream of fresh air will pass continually over the surface of the bed. This air may be warmed before its admission, by carrying the pipe, that conveys it, through the hot dung.

What is here effected by the heat of dung, may be done in hot-houses by that of fire. A pipe, heated by the fire, and reaching to a considerable height in the house, will occasion a continual circulation of the air in the house, that which is warmed in the pipe ascending, whilst the colder air at the bottom comes in to supply its place, and receiving warmth from the tube, ascends in like manner, and this uninterruptedly whilst the heat continues. If the lower part of the pipe is made to communicate with the external air, it will bring in fresh. If the fire-

place

place opens immediately, or by a pipe, into the houſe, the colder part of the air at the bottom will paſs off through the fire, for fire requires a large quantity of air, for its ſupport, whilſt freſh air is brought in and warmed by the other pipe.

Stronger and more ſudden agitations of air, ſufficient to raiſe a moderate wind among the plants, may be obtained occaſionally by mechanic impulſe. I have made the outer and inner doors of the room, with a proper cavity between, ſerve for a ventilator, the check which bounds the cavity on one ſide being made of a circular curvature, that the inner door, in its motion backwards and forwards, may fit cloſe to it all the way. The inner door is furniſhed with a valve at bottom, which on pulling the door backwards, receives a part of the air of the houſe into the cavity, and with another at the top, by which, on puſhing the door forwards, the air is forced out again with ſtrength ſufficient to give a conſiderable ſhake to almoſt all the plants in a large hot-houſe. The outer door is alſo furniſhed with valves, through which, by a few reciprocations of the inner door, the external air is plentifully pumped in, or the internal air driven out, all the valves being made to open occaſionally, outwards or inwards, and ſecured on either ſide with buttons.

The exiſtence of the Fountain tree in the Canary iſlands aſcertained, and its effects accounted for.—From Glaſs's hiſtory of theſe iſlands.

THERE are only three fountains of water in the whole iſland of Hierro, in where the fountain tree grows. One of theſe fountains is called Acof, which, in the language of the ancient inhabitants, ſignifies river; a name however, which does not ſeem to have been given it on account of its yielding much water, for in that reſpect it hardly deſerves the name of a fountain. More to the northward is another called Hapio; and in the middle of the iſland is a ſpring, yielding a ſtream about the thickneſs of a man's finger. This laſt was diſcovered in the year 1565, and is called the fountain of Anton Hernandez. On account of the ſcarcity of water, the ſheep, goats and ſwine here do not drink in the ſummer, but are taught to dig up the roots of fern, and chew them to quench their thirſt. The great cattle are watered at thoſe fountains, and at a place where water diſtils from the leaves of a tree. Many writers have made mention of this famous tree, ſome in ſuch a manner as to make it appear miraculous: others again deny the exiſtence of any ſuch tree, among whom is father Feyjoo, a modern Spaniſh author, in his Theatro Critico. But he, and thoſe who agree with him in this matter, are as much miſtaken as they who would make it appear to be miraculous. This is the only iſland of all the Canaries which I have not been in; but I have ſailed with natives of Hierro, who, when queſtioned about the exiſtence of this tree, anſwered in the affirmative.

The author of the hiſtory of the diſcovery and conqueſt has given us a particular account of it, which I ſhall here relate at large.

"The district in which this tree stands is called Tigulahe, near to which and in the cliff, or steep rocky ascent that surrounds the whole island, is a narrow gutter, or gulley, which commences at the sea, and continues to the summit of the cliff, where it joins or coincides with a valley, which is terminated by the steep front of a rock. On the top of this rock grows a tree, called in the language of the ancient inhabitants, Garse, Sacred or Holy Tree, which, for many years, has been preserved sound, entire and fresh. Its leaves constantly distil such a quantity of water as is sufficient to furnish drink to every living creature in Hierro; nature having provided this remedy for the drought of the island. It is situated about a league and a half from the sea. Nobody knows of what species it is, only that it is called Til. It is distinct from other trees, and stands by itself; the circumference of the trunk is about twelve spans, the diameter four, and in height from the ground to the top of the highest branch, forty spans: the circumference of all the branches together is one hundred and twenty feet. The branches are thick and extended; the lowest commence about the height of an ell from the ground. Its fruit resembles the acorn, and tastes something like the kernel of a pine-apple, but is softer and more aromatic. The leaves of this tree resemble those of the laurel, but are larger, wider, and more curved; they come forth in a perpetual succession, so that the tree always remains green. Near to it grows a thorn, which fastens on many of its branches, and interweaves with them; and at a small distance from the Garse are some beech trees, bresos, and thorns. On the north side of the trunk are two large tanks, or cisterns, of rough stone, or rather one cistern divided, each half being twenty feet square, and sixteen spans in depth. One of these contains water for the drinking of the inhabitants, and the other that which they use for their cattle, washing, and such-like purposes. Every morning, near this part of the island, a cloud, or mist, arises from the sea, which the south and easterly winds force against the fore-mentioned steep cliff; so that the cloud, having no vent but by the gutter, gradually ascends it, and from thence advances slowly to the extremity of the valley, where it is stopped and checked by the front of the rock, which terminates the valley, and then rests upon the thick leaves and wide-spreading branches of the tree, from whence it distils in drops during the remainder of the day, until it is at length exhausted, in the same manner that we see water drip from the leaves of trees, after a heavy shower of rain. This distillation is not peculiar to the Garse, or Til, for the bresos, which grow near it, likewise drop water; but their leaves being but few, and narrow, the quantity is so trifling, that though the natives save some of it, yet they make little or no account of any but what distils from the Til, which, together with the water of some fountains, and what is saved in the winter season, is sufficient to serve them and their flocks. This tree yields most water in those years when the Levant,

Levant, or eaſterly winds, have prevailed for a continuance; for by theſe winds only the clouds or miſts are drawn hither from the ſea. A perſon lives on the ſpot, near which this tree grows, who is appointed by the council to take care of it and its water, and is allowed a houſe to live in, with a certain ſalary. He every day diſtributes to each family of the diſtrict ſeven pots, or veſſels, full of water, beſides what he gives to the principal people of the iſland."

Whether the tree which yields water at this preſent time be the ſame as that mentioned in the above deſcription, I cannot pretend to determine, but it is probable there has been a ſucceſſion of them; for Pliny, deſcribing the Fortunate iſland, ſays, "In the mountains of Ombrion are trees reſembling the plant Ferula, from which water may be procured by preſſure. What comes from the black kind is bitter, but that which the white yields is ſweet and potable."

Trees yielding water are not peculiar to the iſland of Hierro, for travellers inform us of one of the ſame kind on the iſland of St. Thomas, in the bight, or gulph of Guiney. In Cockburn's voyages we find the following account of a dropping tree, near the mountains of Vera Paz, in America.

"On the morning of the fourth day we came out on a large plain, where were great numbers of fine deer, and in the middle ſtood a tree of unuſual ſize, ſpreading its branches over a vaſt compaſs of ground. Curioſity led us up to it; we had perceived, at ſome diſtance off, the ground about it to be wet, at which we began to be ſomewhat ſurpriſed, as well knowing there had no rain fallen for near ſix months paſt, according to the certain courſe of the ſeaſon in that latitude; that it was impoſſible to be occaſioned by the fall of dew on the tree, we were convinced by the ſun's having power to exhale away all moiſture of that nature a few minutes after its riſing. At laſt, to our great amazement, as well as joy, we ſaw water dropping, or as it were diſtilling, faſt from the end of every leaf of this wonderful (nor had it been amiſs if I had ſaid miraculous) tree; at leaſt it was ſo with reſpect to us, who had been labouring four days through extreme heat, without receiving the leaſt moiſture, and were now almoſt expiring for the want of it.

We could not help looking on this as liquor ſent from heaven to comfort us under great extremity. We catched what we could of it in our hands, and drank very plentifully of it, and liked it ſo well, that we could hardly prevail with ourſelves to give over. A matter of this nature could not but excite us to make the ſtricteſt obſervations concerning it, and accordingly we ſtaid under the tree near three hours, and found we could not fathom its body in five times. We obſerved the ſoil where it grew to be very ſtoney; and upon the niceſt enquiry we could afterwards make, both of the natives of the country and the Spaniſh inhabitants, we could not learn there was any ſuch tree known throughout New Spain, nor perhaps all America over; but I do not relate this as a prodigy

in nature, becauſe I am not philoſopher enough to aſcribe any natural cauſe for it; the learned may, perhaps, give ſubſtantial reaſons in nature, for what appeared to us a great and marvellous ſecret."

Account of a plant's diſtilling quickſilver, in a letter from Philip Thickneſſe, Eſq; to Mr. Robert Davis.

SIR,

STrange as the following account may appear to every reader, it is nevertheleſs true; and if any perſons doubt the fact, after conſidering the following relation, you may refer them to me, or any other of the gentlemen, whoſe names I have made known to you for that purpoſe.

About fourteen years ago a particular friend of mine, who had a garden near James-ſtreet, Bedford-Row, was informed by his ſervant, that a Chryſanthemum (a flowering plant commonly known) in the garden, appeared to have very ſmall particles of quickſilver ſpread over the whole ſurface of its leaves and ſtalks! My friend (who is not apt to let the ſlighteſt information eſcape him, and by that means wants very little) examined this plant with all the attention due to ſo extraordinary a production, and was thoroughly convinced of the fact: every leaf and ſtalk had a multitude of ſmall globules of quickſilver adhering thereto, and which ſeemed to (and no doubt did) iſſue from the perſpiratory ducts of the plant.

The fact being aſcertained, my friend ſuffered ſeveral ingenious men of his acquaintance to examine the plant, and enquire into the cauſe; who were all ſatisfied of this extraordinary production, though none could account for it; and it remains a myſtery to this day.

My friend, and other perſons who examined it, frequently collected a great part of the quickſilver from ſeveral of the branches by ſtriking them, and catching the globules or ſmall drops, which inſtantly united into the hand, and left no doubt that it was pure crude quickſilver! And the next day after thus gathering it, it gave freſh proofs of its limbetic quality; for not only the ſurface would be again powdered over, but in the hollow of the leaves, and particularly in thoſe formed by the inſertion of the footſtalks, ſmall drops alſo would be formed by the conflux of the ſmall particles continually emitted!

In this ſtate it continued about three weeks or a month, till the froſt killed it, together with the reſt of its ſpecies.

My friend, knowing his ſervant to be ingenious, took every precaution to find out whether he watered the Chryſanthemum with any ſolution of quickſilver, or uſed any art, or whether it really was the production of chance; and he was thoroughly convinced of the latter; for had the ſervant known ſuch a ſecret, he could have repeated it another year, and thereby have raiſed a large ſum of money by expoſing ſuch a curioſity to the public.

The only tolerable reaſon, therefore, which can be aſſigned towards leading to a diſcovery, is, that as my friend frequently amuſed himſelf with a variety of chemical

experiments (among which there were some wherein quicksilver was employed in various forms) the refuse of it, together with the washings of the glasses and crucibles used in these experiments, were thrown out near the place where this Chrysanthemum grew, and the grateful plant undertook spontaneously to restore again to its master, in this unheard of manner, and in purity too, what it had received in some corrupt state! On the other hand, my friend made many experiments on the same kind of plants, all which either died, or failed of the wished for effect.

Perhaps this account may lead some of your readers to pursue this matter further; many great discoveries have been made by chance: but as this story borders on the marvellous, you are at liberty either to print, or tell the name of,

Sir,

Your humble servant,

Dec. 17, 1763. PHILIP THICKNESSE.

P. S. If, as I have heard asserted, it be true, that men who have taken calomel in great quantities, have with a microscope perceived it to issue through the pores of the skin, it cannot be more extraordinary that a plant should be operated on in the same manner.

History of a new metal, known by the name of White gold or Platina; by Messr. Macquer and Baumé. Extracted from the memoirs of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, for the Year 1758, *published last year.*

THERE is no mention made of this metal in history before the beginning of the present century. This however is no proof that it was altogether unknown in former times, though it may be taken for granted, that no use was made of it; and the great difficulty there still subsists of fluxing it, adds to the probability of this opinion. How long soever it may be since this metal was first discovered, its properties are at this time but new truths, of which it is very likely that a considerable number lie still concealed; and that those already found out might turn to advantage, by being re-examined, and confirmed by new experiments.

The first who searched into the nature of platina, was Mr. Charles Wood, an English metallurgist; whose operations on this subject are recorded in the *Philosophical Transactions* for the year 1750; since which time Mr. Sheffer and Dr. Lewis have directed their enquiries to the same object. The result of the trials of the former are printed in the *Memoirs of the academy of Sweden* for the year 1751, and of the latter in the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1754. These are the principal works concerning this subject, which appeared abroad before Mr. Macquer's, of which we shall here give an account: we should observe, however, that Mr. Margraaf has likewise read a memoir upon it to the academy of Berlin; but his researches were not made public before Mr. Macquer had completed his enquiries.

The platina, on which Mr. Macquer made his experiments, has, like that which was examined by the other chymists, the following characters; it is in small and pretty smooth grains, most of them resembling, as to their figure, pyrami-

dal triangles, with blunted points; their colour not much unlike that of coarſe filings of unruſted iron, but approaching nearer to a ſilvery whiteneſs, after being ſoaked in an acid, or heated to a high degree. Mr. Macquer ſuppoſes with great probability, that the metal owes its name to this laſt property, as derived from the word *plata*, which in Spaniſh ſignifies ſilver.

The name of *white gold*, which has likewiſe been given to this metal, ariſes out of certain properties which alſo belong to gold; ſuch as to be nearly of the ſame ſpecific gravity as gold; to reſiſt, like that, the action of ſulphur, lead, antimony, the royal cement, and all pure acids; and to ſubmit, like gold, to no ſolvent but *aqua regalis*, and *hepar ſulphuris*.

None of the platina that has been hitherto examined, is perfectly homogene. Gold is ſometimes found in it, as in that which Mr. Macquer examined. The ſubſtance moſt frequently met with among it, and in the greateſt quantity, is a ſmall black ſand, brilliant and very pointed, which the load-ſtone attracts as readily as iron.

In order to examine the ductility and other properties of platina, it was neceſſary to procure an ingot of it of a proper ſize; but the ſucceſsleſs attempts that had till then been made to flux it, left but little hopes of any ſuch thing. True it is, that there might ſtill be ways of increaſing the activity of fire, beyond what the chymiſts had yet been able to do, and this conſideration determined Mr. Macquer to have recourſe to new expedients. The wind furnace and the forge had proved uſeleſs, tho' the fire had been kept up fifty hours. A fire capable of fuſing the mixtures of Mr Pott, in his Lithogeognoſy, and ſaid to have afforded him the hardeſt and the leaſt brittle glaſs, would not fuſe platina, but only agglutinate its grains together. This experiment produced ſome other phænomena, amongſt which was one hitherto unobſerved, viz. an actual increaſe of the weight of the platina on which the experiment was made, no leſs than fourteen grains to an ounce. This platina, thus increaſed in weight, was ſubjected to a ſecond trial, which produced a ſecond increaſe; leſs indeed, but yet ſenſible. The augmentation Mr. Macquer aſcribes to a calcination of ſome ſubſtance of a different nature from the platina, intermixed with it; for it is well known that there are ſome ſubſtances, as vitriol, antimony, &c. whoſe weight is increaſed by calcination.

The platina was expoſed to the heat of the glaſs-houſes at Sévres for five days and nights together, without any other alteration of it than ſuch as above-mentioned.

After ſuch ſort of trials, it was not to be expected to gain any new diſcovery by means of ſuch furnaces as are employed in chymical operations; but a thirſt of knowledge animates the imagination and furniſhes contrivances. Mr. Macquer found the means of producing, in the forge of his own elaboratory, a heat far ſtronger than what has been known to be done. To this end he added two large pair of double bellows, to that of the forge, and concentrated their action in one focus. This diſpoſition greatly increaſed the heat; in leſs than an hour and a quarter,

quarter the lining of the furnace melted all down, and formed maſſes of glaſs which choaked the noſes of the bellows; the crucible was alſo vitrified, but the obſtinate platina exhibited only ſome grains perfectly round, as white as ſilver, which ſeemed to have undergone a perfect fuſion: yet a ſlight ſtroke of a hammer reduced them to powder.

After having in vain employed the ſeveral means we have recited, there ſtill remained one which promiſed ſome degree of hope, and the rather worth trying, as it had never been made uſe of by any chymiſt in the examination of platina; this was to expoſe the platina to the focus of a good burning ſpeculum.

The ſpeculum Mr. Macquer uſed, was of glaſs, its diameter two-and-twenty inches, and the diſtance of its focus twenty-eight inches. In half a minute it melted a gun-flint, and changed it into tranſparent glaſs; vitrified Heſſian crucibles and fragments of glaſs-houſe pots in three or four ſeconds; made forged iron fume, melt, boil, and turn to a vitrefcent ſcoria in an inſtant: nay, melted the gypſeous ſtones, which Mr. Pott ſeems to regard as unfuſible.

Theſe effects, with ſeveral others, invited Mr. Macquer to ſubmit platina to ſuch an agent; he did ſo, and here follows the reſult.

The platina he uſed is that ſaid above to have been expoſed to a glaſs-houſe fire, and whoſe grains were agglutinated together; as they were then in a ſolid maſs, they could be the more conveniently expoſed to the focus by holding the lump between a pair of pincers; beſides, the ſurface of this lump being tarniſhed and brown, it was thereby the fitter to abſorb the ſolar rays; whereas the metallic brilliancy, which theſe grains naturally have when ſeparate, promiſed leſs ſucceſs.

The platina thus expoſed to the focus of the ſpeculum, firſt turned to a blueiſh white, caſting off by fits very lively ſparks, and diffuſing a very ſenſible fume; finally, in about a minute it was in a true fuſion; but with this particular, that the melted parts did not drop to the ground, but attached themſelves to thoſe next the limits of the field of the focus.

Thoſe melted parts ſhone like ſilver, and their ſurface was rounded, bright and poliſhed. Being hammered on a ſmall ſteel anvil, they were flatted to a thin plate without any cracking; in a word, they afforded ſufficient marks of malleability, not only far beyond what they had before the fuſion, but even ſuch as gave hopes that they might be ſpread as thin as the leaves of gold or ſilver.

Mr. Macquer having examined the properties which the action of fire diſcovers in platina, ſubmitted this metal to the action of other ſolvents. Of all the acid menſtruums *aqua regalis* alone proved a ſolvent of platina, at leaſt whilſt it remained in its natural ſtate.

This diſſolution produces various phænomena. It requires a great quantity of *aqua regalis*, and is effected much more eaſily by a ſand heat than without it. Mr. Macquer takes notice that the precipitates of platina made with volatile and fixed alkalis, have not

that

that red colour which Dr. Lewis attributes to them in general, except when no more of thoſe alkalis is uſed than what is barely ſufficient to ſaturate the acid; which obſervation led him to a very natural explanation of the colour the precipitate aſſumes in the caſe we have been ſpeaking of.

It has been long known in chymiſtry, that precipitates always carry down along with them part of the diſſolvent and of the precipitant: this truth, which is abundantly ſenſible in the precipitate of platina, afforded Mr. Macquer the means of accounting for ſeveral phænomena which Dr. Lewis had noticed in the precipitation of platina, though that learned chymiſt has not explained them.

The red precipitate of platina, mixed with a flux compoſed of calcined borax, cream of tartar and white glaſs, after being expoſed to a forge heat, produced a lump of the complexion of platina, with all the reſemblance of a metal that had been well melted. Although this lump had not the ſatisfactory tokens of malleability, yet there is room to believe that the fuſion had not been ſufficiently perfect: this is a point which Mr. Macquer intends to examine hereafter, as alſo the vitreſcent matter, into which the precipitate of platina was converted, after the operation of the ſpeculum.

The cupellation of platina by lead is alſo one of the objects, which have been examined by Dr. Lewis, and wherein Mr. Macquer propoſed to ſurmount the difficulties which that ingenious gentleman ſeems to have met with: this operation gave Mr. Macquer a reſult which at firſt ſeemed no more ſucceſsful than that of Dr. Lewis; but a repeated examination opened to him very different properties; the platina, inſtead of increaſing in weight, as Dr. Lewis had obſerved, was found to have loſt a ſixteenth part; it was moreover very extenſible under the hammer. The ſame platina cupelled, and then diſſolved in *aqua regalis*, ſhewed not the leaſt marks of any remaining lead.

The whole of Mr. Macquer's obſervations, compared with what other chymiſts have delivered about this metal, ſeems to eſtabliſh the following matters of fact. That platina is a third perfect metal, as fixed, as indeſtructible, as unalterable as gold and ſilver; that it is not abſolutely unfuſible; that there is even room to hope, that by mixing it with deſtructible metals, and employing a ſufficiently durable and intenſe heat, it may be fluxed in large furnaces. The attempts that have hitherto, or may be hereafter made with this view, cannot be too much applauded; it is eaſy to apprehend of how great utility in arts a metal may prove which reſiſts the action of air, water, fire, ſulphur, acids, and the voracious metals, and has the ſtrength and hardneſs of iron combined with all theſe qualities. Wiſe motives have determined the Spaniſh miniſtry to interdict the working of their platina mines, and to prohibit the commerce of it; however, the lights that chymiſtry has already let us into concerning this metal, may make us eaſy as to any abuſes that may be made of it, and afford hopes, that it may in due time be the more eaſily procured, and

and farther experiments made upon it.

Inſtance of the regeneration of metals, from the laſt volume of the Memoirs of the royal Academy of ſciences at Paris.

THE queſtion concerning the regeneration of metals in mines, is one of the moſt important points of natural philoſophy. Some metallurgiſts are of opinion that they are regenerated; others, that they are not. In the copper mine of Cheiſy, near St. Bel, in the province of Lyonnois, there is found a metallic vegetation which appears greatly in favour of the affirmative. In this mine is a cavern or gallery upwards of two hundred feet long: it is a work of the Romans; and the pieces of wood that ſerve to ſuſtain the roof, are ſtill in a pretty good condition. The copper of this mine, probably diſſolved by ſome vitriolic acid, had aſcended and vegetated along thoſe pieces of oak-wood (the wood having ſerved as a precipitant) and formed ſhrubs on them. What ſeems very ſingular, is, that all thoſe ſhrubs have reſumed with time the metallic form. M. Hellot, to whom we are indebted for this obſervation, preſented to the academy a piece of this wood, which had been ſent to him from Cheiſy. The metallic vegetation is ſeen plainly on it, and it is now kept in the cabinet of the king's garden, as a very curious article of natural hiſtory.

How many queſtions of natural philoſophy on which we are now divided in opinion, would have been ſolved if our obſervations were of a more ancient date! Let us therefore endeavour to be more ſerviceable to poſterity than the ancients have been to us; and, if we cannot tranſmit to them a true picture of this world, let us at leaſt, if poſſible, leave behind us the neceſſary materials for forming it.

PROJECTS.

An account of the Spaniſh fiſhery (hitherto unnoticed by other nations) on the coaſt of Barbary. From Mr. Glaſs's hiſtory of the Canary iſlands.

THE number of veſſels employed in this fiſhery amount to about 30; they are from 15 to 50 tuns burthen; the ſmalleſt carry 15 men, and the largeſt 30. They are all built in the iſlands, and navigated by the natives. Two of theſe belong to the iſland of Palma, four to Tenerife, and the reſt to Canaria. Porto de Luz, in that iſland, is the place from whence they ſail for the coaſt.

The method of fitting out a bark for the fiſhery is this: The owners furniſh a veſſel for the voyage, and put on board her a quantity of ſalt ſufficient to cure the fiſh, with bread enough to ſerve the crew for the whole voyage. Each man carries his own fiſhing-tackle, which conſiſts of a few lines, hooks, a little braſs wire, a knife for cutting open the fiſh, and one or two ſtout fiſhing-rods. If any of the crew carry wine, brandy, oil, vinegar, pepper, onions, &c. it muſt be at his own expence, for the owners furniſh no proviſion but bread. The nett ſum ariſing from the ſale of the fiſh, after deducting the expence of the ſalt and bread before mentioned, is divided into ſhares, a certain number of which are allowed to the owners for their expence in fitting out the veſſel; the reſt are divided among the crew according to their merit: an able fiſherman has one ſhare; a boy, landman, or one not experienced in the fiſhery, half a ſhare, or a quarter, according to his abilities. The patron, or maſter of the bark ſhares equally with the able fiſhermen, and the owners allow him alſo one ſhare out of their's, for his trouble in taking care of the bark.

The place on the coaſt of Barbary where they go to fiſh, is according to the ſeaſon of the year. This fiſhery is bounded on the north by the ſouthern extremity of Mount Atlas, or by the latitude of 29 degrees north; and on the ſouth by Cape Blanco, in the latitude of 20 degrees 30 minutes north: the whole length of the ſea-coaſt ſo bounded is about 600 miles. In all this extenſive tract there is no town, village, or ſettled habitation; the few wandering Arabs who frequent this part of the world live in tents, and have neither boats, barks, nor canoes: the king of Morocco's cruiſers never venture ſo far to the ſouthward; for were they to attempt ſuch a thing, it is not probable they would be able to find the way back to their own country, ſo that the Canarians have nothing to fear from that quarter. In the ſpring ſeaſon the fiſhermen go to the coaſt to the northward, but in the autumn and winter to the ſouthward; becauſe in the ſpring the fiſh frequent the coaſts to the northward, and afterwards go gradually along the ſhore to the ſouthward.

The firſt thing the fiſhermen ſet about when they arrive on the coaſt, is to catch bait; this is done in the ſame manner as we do trouts with a fly, only with this difference, that the rod is thrice as thick as ours, and not tapered away ſo much towards the point. The line is made of ſix ſmall braſs wires, twiſted together: the hook is about five inches long, and is not bearded; the ſhaft is leaded ſo as it may lie horizontally on the ſurface of the water; and the hook is covered with a fiſh's ſkin, except from where it bends, to the point; then getting within a quarter or half a mile of the ſhore, they carry ſo much ſail as to cauſe the bark to run at the rate of four miles an hour, when two or three men throw their lines over the ſtern and let the hooks drag along the ſurface of the water: the fiſh, taking the hooks for ſmall fiſh, ſnap at them, and, when hooked, the fiſhermen ſwing them into the barks with their rods. The Canarians call theſe fiſh taſſarte: They have no ſcales, and are ſhaped like mackarel, but as large as ſalmon; they are exceeding voracious and ſwallow all the hook, notwithſtanding its being ſo large. If it was bearded, there could be no ſuch thing as extracting it without cutting open the fiſh: I have ſeen three men in the ſtern of a bark catch an hundred and fifty taſſarte in half an hour. It ſometimes happens that a bark will complete her lading in theſe fiſh only. Another ſort of fiſh, which theſe people call anhoua, is taken in the ſame manner; this is ſomething bigger than a large mackarel, and ſerves as well as the taſſarte for bait. There is another ſort of bait called cavallos, or little horſe-mackarel, which is ſhaped like a mackarel, but ſomething more flat and broad; it is about a ſpan long, and is catched with an angling rod and line with a very ſmall hook, baited with almoſt any thing that comes to hand. When a bark has got a ſufficient ſtock of bait, ſhe leaves her boat, with five or ſix men, near the ſhore, to catch taſſarte and anhoua, and runs out to ſea a good diſtance off, until ſhe gets into fifteen, twenty, thirty, forty, or perhaps fifty or ſixty fathoms depth of water, where ſhe anchors, and all the crew heave their lines and hooks overboard, baited with taſſarte, anhoua, &c. and fiſh for ſamas, or bream as we call them, and for cherney, or cod. The lines are all leaded, in order to cauſe the hooks to ſink near to the bottom of the ſea, where theſe fiſh ſwim. When a bark is ſo fortunate as to meet with fine weather, and is well provided with bait, ſhe will be able to complete her cargo in four days. This I have often had opportunity to obſerve. But as the trade or north-eaſt wind commonly blows freſh on that coaſt, the barks only anchor in the offing about mid-day, when there is a lull between the land and ſea-breeze; and when this laſt-mentioned wind begins to blow freſh, they weigh their anchors, ſtand in to ſhore, and come to an anchor in ſome bay, or under a head land, and then the crew fall to work, clean and ſalt the fiſh which they catched that day. By the time this is done, it is about five or ſix o'clock in the evening, when they go to dinner or ſupper, for they make but one meal the whole day, which they cook

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in the following manner. In every bark the crew has a long flat ſtone for a hearth, upon which they kindle a fire, and hang a large kettle over it, in which they boil ſome fiſh; they then take a platter, and put ſome broken biſcuit in it, with onions ſhred ſmall; to this they add ſome pepper and vinegar, and then pour in the broth of the fiſh: no ſort of ſoup or broth is more delicious than this. After having eaten of this excellent ſoup, they finiſh their meal with roaſted fiſh, for they throw the boiled fiſh, of which the ſoup was made, into the ſea. Soon after this repaſt, every man looks about for the moſt commodious place where to fall aſleep, for no bedding are made uſe of in theſe veſſels. About five or ſix in the morning they get up, leave the boat near the ſhore, weigh anchor and ſtand out to ſea as before, and never taſte victuals before the ſame time next evening. No man who knows the toil, fatigue, cold and heat which theſe fiſhermen undergo, will ever charge the Spaniards with lazineſs.

The method of curing theſe fiſh is this: They cut them open, clean and waſh them thoroughly, chop off their heads and fins, and pile them up to drain off the water; after which they are ſalted, and ſtowed in bulk in the hold. But becauſe they do not, like the French who fiſh on the banks of Newfoundland, waſh their fiſh a ſecond time and re-ſalt them, they will not keep above ſix weeks or two months.

It is ſtrange to think that the Spaniards ſhould want to ſhare the Newfoundland fiſhery with the Engliſh, when they have one much better at their own doors; I ſay better, for the weather here, and every thing elſe, concurs to make it the beſt fiſhery in the univerſe. What can be a ſtronger proof of this than the Moors on the continent drying and curing all their fiſh without ſalt, or by any other proceſs than expoſing them to the ſun beams? For the pure wholeſome air of that climate, and the ſtrong northerly wind which almoſt conſtantly prevails on this coaſt, totally prevents putrefaction, provided the fiſh are ſplit open, well waſhed, and expoſed to the ſun until they are perfectly dry.

As theſe veſſels ſeldom go to fiſh on any part of the coaſt of Barbary, to the windward of the iſlands, and are obliged to ply againſt the freſh northerly winds which almoſt continually prevail there, they are conſtructed in ſuch a manner that they hold a good wind, as it is termed in the ſea-language, being very ſharp fore and aft, and full and flat in the middle. They are rigged brigantines, and carry a large flying fore-top-ſail, but in general no main-top-ſail, nor ſtay-ſails; they all carry large ſprit-ſails, but no jibbs. I have known theſe barks to beat to windward from Cape Blanco to Grand Canaria in twelve days, though the diſtance is above four hundred miles. Their method of plying to windward is this: They weigh about ſix or ſeven o'clock in the morning and ſtand off to ſea, with the land-wind, until noon, when they put about, and ſtand in ſhore, with the ſea-breeze; when they come cloſe in with it, they either anchor for the night, or make ſhort tacks until day-light, when they ſtand out to ſea, till noon,

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as before. The difference between the land and ſea-breezes on this coaſt is generally four points, and they both blow a freſh top-ſail gale. When they get ten or fifteen leagues to the windward of Cape Bazador, they ſtand over for the iſland of Grand Canaria; if the wind happens then to be at north-eaſt, they fetch the port of Gando, on the ſouth-eaſt part of that iſland; but if the wind is at north-north-eaſt, they only fetch the calms, into which they puſh, and there ſoon find a ſouth-weſt wind to carry them cloſe to Canaria, from whence the greater part of them go to Santa Cruz, and Port Orotava, to diſcharge their cargoes; the reſt go to Palmas in Canaria, and to Santa Cruz, in the iſland of Palma. They do not ſtop at theſe places to ſell the fiſh, but leave them with their agents, to ſell them at leiſure and to the beſt advantage. The common price is three half-pence *per* pound, of thirty-two ounces, which is the weight here uſed for fleſh and fiſh; ſometimes they are ſold for a penny, and never higher than two-pence. The regidores or cavildo, in the iſlands, always regulate the price.

Inſtead of encouraging this moſt uſeful and profitable branch, the magiſtrates in theſe iſlands take every method to hurt it; for they moſt impolitically fix a price on the fiſh, and clog the trade with fooliſh and unreaſonable duties, beſides forbidding the fiſhermen to have any dealing or intercourſe with the Moors on the coaſt where they go to fiſh; which is a very great hardſhip on them, as they are often obliged, when they meet with bad weather, to go aſhore there for fuel and water. However they privately correſpond with them, to their mutual advantage; for the Canarians give to the inhabitants of the Deſart old ropes, which the latter untwiſt and ſpin into yarn or twine for making fiſhing-nets; they alſo give them bread, onions, potatoes, and fruits of many kinds: in return for which the Moors allow them to take wood and water on their coaſt, whenever they are in want of theſe moſt neceſſary articles, and make them preſents of oſtrich-eggs and feathers. The inland Moors would puniſh their poor countrymen, who live on fiſh by the ſea-coaſt, if they knew of their correſpondence with the Canarian fiſhermen: but this does not prevent that intercourſe, as neceſſity obliges theſe people, ſo different from one another, to conform to the laws of nature, however contrary to the precepts of both their religions. But this profitable communication has lately been interrupted, as I ſhall have occaſion to obſerve in the deſcription of that part of Africa.

Theſe barks generally make eight or nine voyages in the ſpace of a year. From the middle of February to the middle of April they remain at Canaria to careen, repair, &c. becauſe at that ſeaſon of the year the fiſh are found only to the northward, where the ſhore lies almoſt ſouth-weſt-by-weſt, or weſt-ſouth-weſt, conſequently open and expoſed to the north-weſt winds, which ſometimes blow there in February, March, and April, and make that part of the coaſt to be what we call a lee-ſhore.

When I firſt frequented the coaſt of the Deſart, the Canary men went no farther to the ſouthward than

than Cape Barbas, in latitude 22 degrees north; but now they go to Cape Blanco, which lies about 30 leagues beyond it. Although the bulk of their cargoes conſiſts of large bream, yet they catch many other ſorts, viz. taſſarte, before-mentioned, a delicious fiſh which taſtes like a very large and fat mackarel, but when dried cannot be diſtinguiſhed from dried ſalmon. The cod caught here is better than that of Newfoundland: the anhoua is exceeding good: the corbino is a large fiſh, weighing about 30 pounds. There are beſides theſe a number of flat fiſh, with many other ſorts which I cannot deſcribe.

Although this fiſhery is capable of the greateſt improvement, yet the Engliſh have no reaſon to be apprehenſive of the Spaniards ever being able to bring it to any degree of perfection, ſo as to rival them in the Spaniſh and Italian markets: the power of the clergy in Spain is a better ſecurity to the Engliſh againſt ſuch an event than if a fleet of 100 ſail of the line were ſtationed on the coaſt of Barbary to obſtruct the Spaniſh fiſhery.

Freſh wort or the infuſion of malt, firſt propoſed by Mr. David Mc Bride, ſurgeon, and now recommended to tryal by Dr. Rutty, as a powerful antiſcorbutic in long voyages.

AMONG the many laudable attempts that have of late years been made for preventing or checking the progreſs of that direful malady, the ſcurvy at ſea, there is one which hath lately been communicated to the public, that ſeems to merit peculiar attention, being founded on a ſet of experiments judiciouſly made and applied, in a work entitled, *Experimental Eſſays*, by David Mc Bride, ſurgeon.

The humanity, the importance and uſefulneſs of the author's deſign, are evidently ſuch, that I thought I could not do a better ſervice to my country, than by exhibiting to the obſervation both of the learned and unlearned the following ſketch of it.

It is a well known fact, that the diſeaſe above named has never yet been known to yield to any other kind of remedies, than to ſuch as are compoſed of freſh vegetables; and provided they be freſh, and taken in large quantities in the way of diet, it is almoſt no matter what they are; the acid, the alcaleſcent, the mild and the acrid, the ſweet and the bitter, all and each of them cure the ſcurvy, though their ſenſible qualities be ſo oppoſite, and their manner of affecting the body in ordinary caſes be ſo different. This plainly ſhews then that their operation on the ſcorbutic humour muſt depend on ſome property which all freſh vegetables poſſeſs in common.

Now a property common to all freſh vegetables is, that when mixed with the fleſh or juices of any animal, they preſently run into fermentation, and in the courſe of that fermentation throw off a ſubtile vapour, which hath a ſurpriſing power to reſtore ſweetneſs to putrid animal ſubſtances.

This our author hath very ſatisfactorily proved by a great number of experiments which give the

the ſtrongeſt reaſons to believe that the cure of the ſcurvy depends entirely on the fermentation of the freſh vegetables, which is carried on in the ſtomach and bowels, thus producing a great quantity of the vapour above-mentioned, which mixes with the blood, and there reſtores its conſiſtence, and brings back its ſweetneſs; for in the ſcurvy, the blood is entirely diſſolved into a thin and putrid ichor.

This being the caſe, we have only to find out ſome vegetable ſubſtances which may be kept for a length of time, and yet ſhall contain materials for raiſing a fermentation in the bowels like unto that raiſed by freſh vegetables, and then in all human probability we ſhall at all times be maſters of a remedy for the ſcurvy.

Such a ſubſtance our author preſumes to be malt.—Malt differs widely from the grain in its crude ſtate; by the germination, drying and ſlight torrefaction, its natural viſcidity is deſtroyed, it acquires an agreeable ſaccharine taſte, and the farinaceous part is ſo far attenuated, as to be rendered ſoluble in water.

Freſh wort or an infuſion of malt is a liquor ſimilar to the recent juices of the freſh vegetables, fermenting readily like them, and being preciſely of the ſame mild, ſaponaceous, and aperient nature.

Now there is nothing more certain than that theſe juices cure the ſcurvy: What then ſhould hinder wort from doing the ſame thing, and as it may be taken in as a large a quantity, with as much ſafety, and as little diſguſt as any freſh juice whatſoever, there can be no poſſible objection to its being tried.

Wherefore all perſons concerned in long voyages, and particularly the Eaſt India company (for now in time of peace the king's ſhips will ſeldom be viſited with the ſcurvy) ought to pay attention to the propoſal of our author; namely, to carry out malt on board the ſhips, which is to be previouſly well dried and packed in ſmall caſks, and theſe are to be ſtowed in the bread room, or ſome other dry part of the ſhip, and kept until the ſcurvy ſhall begin to appear among the crew; then the malt is to be coarſely ground and brewed into wort, occaſionally as it may happen to be wanted.

The manner propoſed for brewing the wort is, to pour three parts of boiling water to one of the ground malt, and having let the mixture ſtand cloſe covered up for three or four hours, then to ſtrain it off: And the method in which it is to be given, is, to boil it up into a panada, with ſea biſcuit, or ſome of the dried fruits that are uſually carried to ſea; then let the ſcorbutic patients make at leaſt two meals a day of this palatable meſs, and let them drink a quart or more, if it ſhall be found to agree, (always, however, beginning with a ſmaller doſe, and gradually increaſing it) of the freſh infuſion every 24 hours.

Its moſt likely effect will be to open the belly, a moſt agreeable circumſtance to the poor ſcorbutics, in whom obſtinate coſtiveneſs is a very common ſymptom; yet if it be taken, too liberally, it may occaſion ſevere griping and immoderate purging: when this happens, the doſe muſt be leſſened, and ſome drops of the

acid elixir of vitriol may be given with it, in order to check the too great tendency to fermentation, and make it ſit eaſier on the ſtomach.

It is, however, to be noted, that though our author inſiſts chiefly on the wort, as thinking it comes the neareſt to the freſh juices in every reſpect, yet, where malt has not been carried out, and melaſſes, brown ſugar, or honey happen to be at hand, he deſires that either of them may be tried, being previouſly diſſolved in a due proportion of water (about four to one) and given to patients in the way of drink and panada as hath been already propoſed.

That a ſcheme ſo eaſily practicable, and with a probable proſpect of ſucceſs, may be put in execution, is earneſtly recommended to thoſe whom it may concern; and if the ſucceſs ſhould prove equal to the expectations reaſonably formed of it, it would do honour to the Britiſh iſlands, and be a ſtanding evidence, that whilſt we are retiring from the tumults and ſtratagems of war, we are not negligent in promoting the more glorious arts of peace and love. This is the aim of the preſent recommendation of the above mentioned ſcheme from one who has the pleaſure of an acquaintance with the author, and of being a witneſs to the truth of his experiment.

JOHN RUTTY.

Dublin, 23d, 11th month, 1764.

Eaſy method of hindering water from growing putrid.

IN the courſe of experiments which a very ingenious and uſeful member of the ſociety of arts, &c. was making, he had occaſion to mix clay with a large quantity of water in a ciſtern.

After the water and clay had remained thus mixed for ſome weeks, he taſted the water before it ſhould be thrown out, and found it ſweet, and well flavoured. On this he ſtirred them, to find whether any putrid ſtench might riſe from the bottom, but was agreeably ſurpriſed to find that the whole was equally ſweet.

He now reſolved to keep it longer, in order to determine what effects time might have on the mixture, and, if my memory ſerves me right, repeated the taſtings and ſtirrings for ſeveral months, with equal ſucceſs, though ſome part of the time was ſummer, during which he expected that the water would have become highly putrid.

He communicated this diſcovery to the ſociety for the encouragement of arts, who paid the regard to his communication which ſo important a matter deſerved, and referred it to the committee of chemiſtry, with orders to make what experiments ſhould ſeem to them requiſite, to determine a point ſo neceſſary to the welfare of numbers, as many diſeaſes are known to take their riſe from putrid water; and the whole was approved by them.

Thus, then, every cottager has it in his power conſtantly to uſe ſweet and wholeſome water, by juſt mixing with water a quantity of common clay, ſufficient to take off its tranſparency, ſo far as that the hand held juſt under the ſurface ſhall not appear through it.

If I may venture my opinion, I think the clay acts only as a ſubſtance of exceeding ſmall par-

ticles, which being diffuſed through the minute interſtices between the particles of water, adhere, by their clammineſs, to every animal or vegetable ſubſtance they meet with, and carry them to the bottom. There the animal and vegetable particles, the only putreſcent ones, are ſo far ſeparated from one another, by the intervening clay, that they no where come in contact in ſufficient quantity to bring on a regular putrefaction, but rather diſſolve into an uniform ſubſtance with the clay.

I ſhall not enter here into the great naval purpoſes to which this diſcovery may be applied, leaving that to the author himſelf, or to ſome better pen.

Eaſy method of ſweetening putrid water, with a hint for remedying ſome inconveniencies attending fire ventilators.

I Have been captain of a Guineaman ſeveral voyages; on which occaſions I always took a half-barrel of unſlacked lime with me, to be ready to uſe to ſweeten the ſhips water.

On the ſlaves being turned down in an evening, we always got our water up, in a caſk we have on purpoſe, abaft our barricade, firſt ſtraining the water off out of the caſk, being the ſediment of what was left that day to put into the boiler (which was of iron, as I never uſed a copper) for the next day's ſlaves proviſion; then we filled our caſk out of the hold, the water often being thick, and ſtinking very much; to remedy which we always put three or four meat-ſpoonfuls of the lime to a punchion of water, containing about ninety gallons.

The following morning the water would be as clear as any ſpring water, and as ſweet.

Unſlacked lime has likewiſe the quality of ſweetening caſks, by juſt putting ſome of it in cold water into the caſk, ſtopping it cloſe and then rolling it about till no more noiſe is heard.

I ſhall ſay no more, but refer you to Alſton's Diſſertations on Quick Lime, and its great uſe in ſea voyages.

I had always good ſucceſs in both white and black from mortality, a great deal of which I attributed to the lime in water; and after uſing it a little while, the ſlaves would not drink the water without lime was in it.

Once a ſailor, now a farmer.

P. S. In Dr. Mead's works, there is mentioned a ventilator by fire from the furnace, which being tried on board his majeſty's ſhips, complaint was made of the fire going down with the pipe.

This might be eaſily remedied by forming it into the furnace with a ſwan's neck.

I am ſure it would be of the utmoſt ſervice on board a Guineaman, as our furnace is fixed at the barricade at the main hatch-way.

From the pipe that leads to the well, there ſhould be two branches of about a foot or two long, to which the leather ouſes (pipes of the ſame nature with the leather pipes uſed in fire-engines) ſhould be ſcrewed; and at every fathom diſtance there ſhould be wooden nozels, as they then might make the ouſes longer or ſhorter, to be conveyed to what part of the ſhip they pleaſed.

General rules to preserve the health of soldiers and sailors in hot climates, by the late Dr. Hales.

FIRST, let all our soldiers who have a mind to preserve health, live temperately; particularly let them abstain from all excess in rum, or other spirituous liquors. Whatever they drink of spirits must be a long time distilled, and reduced to an innocent sherbet, by mixing in it five parts in six of water. This may be done by the care of their officers.

Secondly, let them, as much as possible, avoid the heavy evening dews, or wetting their feet at night, which last generally produces fatal sore throats; if, by accident, they wet their feet, the surest remedy is, as quickly as they can after, to wet their whole body.

Thirdly, let them, where they have opportunity, plunge every morning into the salt water. In the inland parts, where this opportunity is not at hand, let each soldier every morning throw into his bason an ounce of salt; and after it is dissolved in the water, dip into the bason a coarse towel, and wet his head, his limbs, and all his body over with this salt water, and immediately after put on his cloaths without drying his skin. Bay salt is the best, if it may be had. This wonderfully strengthens and braces all the muscular fibres, and covers the skin with a kind of saltish crust, which prevents all feverish infections. This whole process may be executed in three minutes, and effectually embalms and preserves the body from danger for that day.

Translation of a letter from the Avoyer, or chief magistrate, at Berne, in Switzerland, to ———, relative to the magazines for corn and wine there.

SIR,

YOU ask me for an account of the provisions both for corn and wine, which are subsisting in the canton of Berne, and if it is true that we owe the establishment of them to the patriotic zeal of a citizen of this republic, who, dying without children, left his riches for that purpose: in regard to which, I have the honour to acquaint you, that you have been misinformed as to the nature of the foundation of our magazines; and give me leave to add, by the way, that it is not in this little republic, as in great states. At Berne, private men have very slender fortunes: on the contrary, the state, by a course of disinterestedness and prudent œconomy in those who govern, may pass for rich, since the rights of the royalties only, with the rents of the estates, or lordships, of which they are possessed, both by purchase and conquest, put it in their power, and even without raising any sort of tax or excise on the people, to lay up almost every year some saving in the treasury; from thence it arises that the government is always both willing and able to relieve the wants of its citizens and subjects, and therefore such foundations would, in this country, be works of supererogation.

The magistrates of Berne ever flatter themselves, that it is more honourable for them to administer the

the revenues of the republic in such a manner, that none but itself should be in a capacity to relieve the people, than it would be, if by augmenting the salaries of their officers, which they are well able to do, they should become, after the example of many great states, rich citizens in a poor republic. But it is time to finish this long digression, and to apply myself to satisfy, Sir, your curiosity: I will begin by laying before you the nature of the magazines for corn.

The people of Berne have two sorts, one subject to great variations, the other always the same.

There are of the first sort many in the capital, and in many other parts of the canton, which are filled, more or less, according as the abundance of the harvest, and goodness of the grain, furnish an opportunity; for, besides the fixed revenue which the state hath in fee-farm rents, it hath a great quantity of tithes, which are of a very casual, and very different produce. When there are several fruitful years in succession, the granaries of this sort in the capital become full; but in other parts, if there is an appearance, towards Easter, of a good harvest, the corn is sold, which is in the castles of the different bailiwicks, after having paid the several salaries to which they are made liable; and the bailiffs, who have a certain revenue made good to them, account for the surplus to the chamber of œconomy at Berne. The magazines of this capital, on the contrary, are never opened and sold but in dear times; and then care is taken not to sell to any family more than is sufficient for its supply, and always below the market price.

As to the magazines of the second sort, they are called the *provision*, and were established in pursuance of a convention, called the *dissentional*, which the whole Helvetic body hath entered into for the common defence of Switzerland, in case of an attack from a foreign enemy. This treaty, regulating the number of troops and artillery which each canton is bound to furnish, obliges them at the same time, to have always ready, and in store, provision and ammunition in proportion to their contingent. There are of these magazines of provision, as well at Berne as in all the castles where the bailiffs reside: they are never either diminished or increased, only care is taken to keep them always in good order, and to substitute good corn in the place of that which decays. A bailiff, who should disapply this provision, would be deposed; and from time to time the deputies of Berne, without giving notice of their intention, visit these magazines, and cause the corn to be measured over. Although there is six times more corn in these magazines than the contingent, which Berne furnishes by the dissentional, requires, they have never taken, out, in times of peace, more than one fourth part in an exceeding scarcity; and they have had great care to refill them without delay.

This is, Sir, in abridgment, an account of the magazines for the provision of corn in the canton of Berne. Several short crops with-

in fifteen years having cauſed the common people to ſuffer by the high price which they were obliged to give for their bread, and the corn which the government cauſed to be purchaſed in Burgundy and Suabia, and reſold to a great loſs, having given but little relief to the miſery of the poor, there is at preſent a project under conſideration at Berne, which, if it is brought to paſs, will, in all probability, prevent the ſubjects of this ſtate from paying very dear for their bread for the time to come; which is this: It is propoſed to build, in thoſe parts of the canton which are moſt fruitful in corn, large granaries, and at ſuch times when the abundance of the harveſt ſhall have cauſed the value of a certain meaſure of corn to fall below a certain price, to buy up, on account of the government, all that ſhall be left for ſale in the markets, after private perſons have done buying, to to the end that the owner, or farmer, may be always ſure of having a certain price for his corn, and not be under a neceſſity of being at the expence and trouble of laying up what he may have left in the town-hall, or carrying it home again, or elſe ſelling it at too low a price to foreigners in the neighbourhood, of whom the ſubjects of Berne are often afterwards obliged to buy it again at an exorbitant rate. The government, on the contrary, will ſell their corn again to their ſubjects, as ſoon as ever the price ſhall have riſen to a certain degree; and by this management they will prevent both the too high, and too low price of this commodity, both of which are inconveniencies, in their conſequences hurtful enough to deſerve the care of a ſovereign to prevent, who hath nothing more at heart than to procure, as much as can depend on his care and foreſight, the happineſs of the people which Providence hath ſubmitted to his government.

As to wine, the ſtate of Berne having a great quantity of wine, as tithes and quit-rents, in the ſeveral vineyards in the canton, had formerly a great deal in ſtore, both at Berne and elſewhere, of which they made uſe, in ſhort years, both to pay the ſalaries in wine, which are annexed to a number of employments, and to ſupply the poor citizens therewith at a moderate price, obſerving the ſame precaution as when they ſell corn at a low price; but the ſalaries in wine have by little and little increaſed to ſuch a degree, that at this day there is ſo little left to be laid up, that after two ſucceeding ſhort years, the ſtate finds itſelf under a neceſſity of paying a great part of the ſalaries in money, which were appointed to be paid in wine, in order to keep it in their power to ſupply the tradeſmen and other poor citizens of Berne therewith at a low rate.

I hope, Sir, that I have been ſo ſucceſsful as to ſatisfy your curioſity, and have the honour to be, Sir,—Your humble ſervant.

An

An Account of the Progress of grain from the market to the mouth, by an accurate trial made near Kettering, and exhibited before four of his majesty's justices of the peace for the county of Northampton, August 3, 1757.

A bushel of	Bought at	Weight by the market measure.	Weight by the standard measure.	Surplus above the standard.	When ground into meal.	When dressed into flour.	Bran.
		lb. oz.	lb. oz	lb. oz.	lb. oz.	lb. oz.	lb. oz.
Wheat,	Kettering,	61 8	60 0	1 8	58 12	45 1	12 6
Barley,	Harborough,	50 0	48 8	1 8	48 0	39 4	8 8
Rye,	Harborough,	56 8	53 0	3 8	52 12	30 14	21 2

A bushel of it half made into dough.	lb. oz.	Weight of the loaves unbaked.	lb. oz.	Weight when baked.	lb. oz.
Flour	22 8½	Four twelve-penny loaves, each at	7 4	Four twelve-penny loaves, each at	6 9
Water	9 11½		29 0		26 4
Barm	0 12	Odd weight	4 4	Odd weight	3 0
Salt	0 4		33 4		29 4
Dough	33 4				
Flour	19 10	Two twelve-penny loaves, each at	15 0	Two twelve-penny loaves, each at	13 15
Water	11 2		30 0		27 14
Barm	1 0	Odd weight	2 0	Odd weight	1 4
Salt	0 4		32 0		29 2
Dough	32 0				
Flour	15 7	One twelve-penny loaf	14 0	One twelve-penny loaf	13 0
Water	6 5	One six penny loaf	7 0	One six penny loaf	6 8
Barm	0 12		21 0		19 8
Salt	0 4	Odd weight	1 12	Odd weight	1 0
Dough	22 12		22 12		20 8

Encouragement for planting palm-trees in high latitudes.

THIS wonderful tree, which affords such plenty of fruit, and contributes so largely to the ustenance of the inhabitants in many parts of the globe, is propagated either from young shoots taken from the roots of full grown trees, or from the stone of the fruit. The former method is chiefly used in the kingdoms of Algiers and Tunis; and those that are well transplantrd, and sufficiently watered for four or five days (which is the only culture they require) will yield fruit in six or seven years.

The palm-tree is in its greatest vigour when about 30 years old, and continues in full strength near 70 years longer, bearing yearly in Algiers and Tunis, during this interval of time, 15 or 20 clusters of dates, each weighing 15 or 20 pounds. The first is oval, about 3 inches long, and 2 wide, having something of the taste of gingerbread. After 100 years growth, they begin gradually to moulder and pine away, and perish about the latter end of their second century.

The palm-trees are found also at St. Helena, Madagascar, Barbadoes, where the inhabitants make honey, wine, and sugar from them. And among the several vegetable substances which afford oil, so necessary for maintaining life, and promoting manufactories, I know none, says Sir Hans Sloane, but the fruit of this and the olive-tree, whose pulps are useful for these purposes.

Dr. Pococke informs us, that the palm-tree is the most extraordinary tree in Egypt; the boughs are of a grain like cane. When the tree grows large, a great number of fibres shoot out from the boughs on each side, crossing one another in such a manner as to form a sort of close net-work: this they spin with the hand, and with it make cords of all sizes, which are mostly used in Egypt. They also make a brush for cloaths. Of the leaves they make mattresses, baskets, and brooms; and of the branches all sorts of cage-work, square baskets for packing, and which serve for many uses instead of boxes, &c.

These trees are male and female, but the fruit of the female will be dry and insipid without a previous communication with the male; the trees will even frequently cast the fruit; nor will it ever ripen to perfection without such congress.

There are several ways of fœcundating this tree: some plant males near the females, that the prolific dust of the male may be conveyed by the air to the female; others tie clusters of the male-flowers to the females. Dr. Shaw says, than in Algiers and Tunis (at which places the male-trees are scarce) they used the parts of generation of this plant, and in a manner somewhat analogous to animal propagation: and this way one male-tree is sufficient to impregnate 500 female-trees. But the most ancient and frequent practice was, to take a whole cluster of the male-tree, when in flower, and sprinkle the farina, or dust of it, over several clusters of the female.

The following extract of a letter from Berlin, is a demonstrative proof of the probability of this

this useful and curious tree's succeeding in high latitudes.

"There is a great palm-tree in the garden of the Royal academy; it has flowered and produced fruit these 30 years; but the fruit never ripened, and when planted did not vegetate. The palm-tree, you know, is one of those in which the male and female parts of generation are found upon different plants. We having therefore no male plant, the flowers of our female were never impregnated by the farina of the male. There is a male plant of this kind at Leipsick, 20 German miles from Berlin. We procured from thence, in April 1749, a branch of male flowers, and suspended it over those of our female; and the experiment succeeded so well, that our palm-tree produced more than 100 perfect ripe fruit; from which we have already eleven young palm-trees. This experiment was repeated last year, and our palm-tree bore above 2000 ripe fruit." This relation is very curious, on account of the male and female palm-trees flourishing so compleatly, even under all possible disadvantages, in such high latitudes as Leipsick and Berlin.

John Bauhin describes and figures the whole fructification of a palm-tree, which he himself saw growing at Montpelier, and which produced branches both of male and female flowers, bearing dates; and Mr. Ray, many years after, tells us, that he himself saw, at Montpelier, this very remarkable tree mentioned by John Bauhin.

But further to display the curious manner and impenetrable secrecy of the works of the most high in the vegetable world, and to engage reflecting minds to consider the nice distinction in plants, notwithstanding the near affinity of the species; it will not be amiss to observe, that even though the female-tree of one species may be fœcundated by the male of another, and the fruit grow to maturity and perfection; yet the stones are rendered incapable of vegetation by an imperceptible barrier, an inviolable law of the divine author. The following remarkable instance will display that wonderful œconomy in nature to preserve the different gensues of plants distinct and separate.

A French author tells us, that being at Martinico, he saw growing near the place where they anchored, a palm-tree bearing dates, tho' the only one of its kind which was in that neighbourhood; but he imagines this tree to have been impregnated by the farina fœcundans of the male cocao-tree, which is a sort of palm, and which grew in abundance near the tree that bore dates. At the same time he adds, that the stones of the dates did not vegetate.

For further information concerning this, and some other very remarkable plants, I would recommend to the reader's perusal a very curious botanical memoir, published in the 47th vol. of the Philosophical Transactions, page 169.

I shall conclude with observing, that perhaps no tree is more frequently mentioned by the inspired writers than the palm-tree; or applied by way of similitude, &c. to more noble purposes.

A—Z—.

On the benefit of salt to cattle, with the method of using it.

I Do not find that the farmers in England know the great advantages which may be derived from the use of salt in the business of fattening cattle; whereas in America we think it, in a manner, absolutely necessary, and accordingly give it to almost every kind of cattle; and those with parted hoofs are particularly fond of it.

There cannot be a greater instance of this fondness, than the wild cattle resorting to the salt licks, where they are chiefly killed. We give this name of salt licks to the salt springs, which, in various places, issue naturally out of the ground, and form each a little rill.

Horses are as fond of salt as black cattle; for with us, if they are ever so wild, they will be much sooner brought to a handful of salt than to any kind of corn whatever.

We also give salt to our sheep; and to this practice is it generally ascribed, that the American cattle, in general, are so much more healthy than the same animals in England: certain it is, that they are there subject to much fewer diseases.

There is one very advantageous practice we have, which I cannot enough recommend to the notice of the farmers here in England: it is mixing salt with our hay-ricks when we stack it, which we call brining.

Just before I left America I had a crop of hay, which was in a manner spoiled by rain, being almost rotted in the field; yet did this hay spend as well as if it had been got in never so favourably.

When my servants were making up the stack, I had it managed in the following manner; that is, as soon as a bed of hay was laid about six inches thick, I had the whole sprinkled over with salt; then another bed of hay was laid, which was again sprinkled in like manner; and this method was followed till all the hay was stacked.

When the season came for cutting this hay, and giving it to my cattle, I found that so far from refusing it, they eat it with surprising appetite, always preferring it before the sweetest hay, that had not been in this manner sprinkled with salt.

A method of making all kinds of wood more durable than they naturally are, successfully tried upon beech wood.

BEECH wood is well known to be very much subject to breed the worm, which presently destroys it: this worm is supposed, not without reason, to feed on the sap that remains in the wood after it is cut out into scantlings, and wrought up; therefore I imagined the best way to preserve it was, to take away the food that the worm fed on, by extracting in some manner, the sap.

There was, as I have been informed, some years ago, an attempt made to prepare beech-timber in such a manner, as to make it fit for the purposes for which elm is often used in ship-building; and a patent was obtained for the invention; but I never heard of this scheme

meeting

meeting with encouragement, which I am apt to think might partly be owing to the expence attending the preparation of the timber.

The manner in which it was done was as follows. After the timber was ſawed into ſcantlings, or hewed only, if it was to be uſed in an entire piece, it was laid in a bed of ſand, which ſand was contained in a building of brickwork, contrived in ſuch a manner as to be heated, by means of properly-diſpoſed furnaces, to any degree.

This heating of the ſand cauſed the wood, which it covered, to ſweat out its ſap, which was all imbibed by the dry ſand, and the timber was left, after the operation, in a ſtate much improved.

I do not deny but that this method was very efficacious, but it appears on the face of it to be expenſive.

I uſe, for the purpoſe of improving this wood, two ſeveral methods. When the ſcantlings are large, I lay them, after they are rough-wrought, to ſoak in a pond of water for ſome weeks, more or leſs, according to the girt of the pieces, and the ſeaſon of the year; in the heat of ſummer the operation is ſooneſt done. If they are planks, or boards, and there is danger of their warping, I lay them to dry under cover from the ſun and rain, putting bits of laths betwixt the boards to prevent their lying cloſe together, and a conſiderable weight of ſtones, &c. over all. If they are blocks of a large ſcantling, for beams, joiſts, &c. for which this wood is ſometimes uſed, I take no other caution than letting them dry gradually without being expoſed either to the ſun or the rain, which would be apt to make them ſhiver, and be ſpoilt in the working.

This firſt method never failed me. The timber, when applied to uſe, was at leaſt as good, and as durable as elm. Between thirty and forty years ago, I uſed beech thus prepared, for beams, joiſts, and floors, which are to this day as ſound as ever, and likely to remain ſo: I had, however, the precaution to give the wood a thick coat of pitch, wherever it touched the brick work; for it does not love any kind of dampneſs, which inclines it to rot, like elm; but keep it dry, and I cannot ſay how long it will laſt in my method of preparing it.

The beech I uſed was felled in the heat of ſummer, when in full ſap, as I judged the ſap was at that ſeaſon in the moſt fluid ſtate, and would the readier quit the wood than when it was dead, and congealed, as it were, in an inactive ſtate in winter.

If I remember right, the beams and larger pieces were left above twenty weeks in the pond, the joiſts and rafters about twelve weeks, and the thinner boards eight; and afterwards they were all gradually dried in the manner above directed.

I boil in a large copper, which holds near two hogſheads, for two or three hours, all the beech wood I employ in ſmaller uſes, which is no inconſiderable quantity in a year, being a chair maker and a turner by trade; and then, before I dry it, I beſtow another ſhort boil on it, of about a quarter of an hour, in ſome freſh water, the firſt being ſtrongly impregnated with the ſap, and acquiring a high colour and a bitter taſte. This way of

of managing the wood takes out all the ſap; it works pleaſanter, is more beautiful when finiſhed, and laſts, without compariſon, longer.

I have often thought, that for many uſes it would be a great improvement of this wood, if it was a third time to be boiled in ſome vegetable oil, or at leaſt, if not boiled in it, managed in ſome manner that the pores of the wood ſhould be filled with the fat juice; but as this is expenſive, and I had no immediate occaſion for ſuch an improvement, I never made the trial; and it is too late in life for me to do it now.

Extract of a letter from Vevai in Switzerland, July 25, 1764; containing an eaſy method of making wood leſs combuſtible.

BEING fond of every thing that promiſes to be of public utility, I was the other day much gratified by ſeing an experiment made to prove the efficacy of a method diſcovered by Dr. Henchoz, for making wood leſs combuſtible. When the company was aſſembled, ſeveral fir billets were produced which had been previouſly prepared according to the doctor's directions. We made a large fire, and laying on one of the above billets, it remained a conſiderable time uninjured, ſeeming to repel the fire; at laſt however it was with ſome difficulty conſumed, or rather it mouldered into aſhes, but without emitting any flame. We repeated the experiment ſeveral times, and always with the ſame ſucceſs; by which we found, that in an ordinary fire this wood remained unconſumed. You perhaps will expect that I ſhall inform you in what manner this wood was prepared, and I am happy in having it in my power to oblige you. The method is ſimple; it is only ſoaking the wood in water, in which equal quantities of common ſalt and vitriol have been diſſolved; but the water ſhould be nearly ſaturated, or the ſucceſs will not be ſo certain; the wood is to be dried, and is afterwards fit for any uſe, and ſeems particularly to be adapted to wainſcotting, as that in moſt in danger when a fire breaks out in a houſe.

On ſtaining elm boards of a mahogany colour, with a hint towards ſtaining wood whilſt growing.

AS I am very fond of mahogany furniture, I immediately (on reading a paper relating to a method of imitating it) entered on ſome experiments for that purpoſe; but as a particular narrative of each would be too tedious to repeat, I ſhall only obſerve, that the method which ſucceeded beſt with me was as follows.

I took two pieces, one of elm, and another of plane, both of which I ſtained well with aqua fortis.

I then took two drams of powdered dragon's blood, one dram of powdered alkanet root, and half a dram of aloes; from all which I extracted a tincture, with half a pint of ſpirits of wine: this tincture I laid over the wood with a ſponge for two or three times, and it gave it the colour of a piece of fine old mahogany.

But may not wood be more uniformly and durably coloured while grow-

growing, ſince the bones of animals, as I myſelf have often ſeen, are ſucceſsfully coloured by feeding them on madder roots? The anhelent tubes, by which trees ſuck their nouriſhment from the earth, are analogous to the mouths of animals, and the circulating veſſels of the former are much larger than thoſe in the bones of the latter.

Directions for diſcovering coal-mines.

INquiries of this nature will, I am very apprehenſive, become every year more neceſſary, as many parts of this iſland are almoſt deſtitute of that, without which we cannot ſubſiſt, I mean fuel for fire. And many other parts, from which thoſe were once ſupplied with wood for fuel, have now very little to ſpare; for which cauſe, not only our large cities and principal towns, but alſo great part of the inhabitants in country places, muſt be ſupplied with ſomething as a ſubſtitute, as turf, peat, or coals.

From the firſt no great ſupply can be expected, except to thoſe who reſide near ſuch barren ſandy heaths where petty whin, heather, and ſhort furze, plentifully grow: from the ſecond, it is true, ſomething may be expected, as large quantities thereof may be had in many counties; but as an unpleaſant ſmell accompanies the burning it, it is not likely there will be any more of it uſed for culinary uſes than what bare neceſſity obliges, ſo that it may juſtly be concluded, coals will ever remain that kind of fuel for which there will be the greateſt demand; the conſequence of which may be reaſonably ſuppoſed an increaſe of its price, unleſs greater ſupplies can be diſcovered, than what at preſent are known.

Theſe conſiderations have frequently induced me to wiſh, for the ſake of the middle and loweſt ranks of people, that more frequent trials might be made for this valuable mineral; and as I live in the neighbourhood of many collieries, I have, as opportunity and leiſure would permit, made frequent inquiries and obſervations on the moſt probable ſigns of it on the ſurface under which it is to be expected; ſome of which I now propoſe to communicate, as, perhaps, from theſe hints, an inquiry of this nature may be carried further by perſons better qualified for ſuch undertakings.

One general, and, I think it may be ſaid, certain ſign is, iron ore; for wherever this is to be met with, coal is near.

But the better to guide, it may not be amiſs to fix ſome certain, and eaſy-to-be-known ſign, on or near the ſurface, as a ſtandard by which to direct the ſearch; inaſmuch as the earth is compoſed of ſeveral ſtrata, conſiſting of different kinds of earth and ſtones, all which have a fall or dip to ſome point between the north and ſouth eaſtward, their ſeveral ſections appearing on the ſurface in the oppoſite points, and are by miners, at leaſt thoſe who dig coal, called the crop of the veins.

This being premiſed, I would propoſe the ſtratum of free-ſtone, or what may be better known by the name of Bath-ſtone, for the ſtandard, as being the eaſieſt to be diſcovered on the ſurface; laying it down as a certain maxim, (at leaſt it has appeared no other to me) that not any coals are to be met with

with to the ſouth. or ſouth-eaſt of the ſection of this ſtratum*; but muſt be looked for, if any ſucceſs be expected, on the oppoſite ſide between the north and ſouth weſtward.

The ſection of the ſtratum, which appears next on this ſide, is a kind of ſandy rock, in which large ſtones of harder conſiſtence lie interſperſed; next unto this frequently appears a ſection of the white lyas-ſtone, but not in every place, it being in ſome places loſt in another ſtratum, conſiſting of very hard lime-ſtone, and a kind of grey iron flinty ſtone intermixed, which lieth on a ſtratum of marl of various colours, but moſtly red, brown, and blue, in veins.

The next ſection is clay, the colour frequently varying, but is moſtly of that of yellow ocre, inclining to an orange; under which is the ſtratum of penant-rock, in which are frequently met veins of iron, anſwering the character of that metal in every reſpect, except ductility; and very frequently do appear in the quarries of the ſtone of this ſtratum, lumps of pure coal in ſolid pieces of this ſtone; and ſometimes thin veins of coal between the ſtrata of ſtone in this ſtratum.

Next unto this, and often intermixed with it, is the ſection ſtratum, which contains the coal, and is what the miners call the crop of the vein, and is diſcovered by the ground being ſpringy, and ſubject to green moſs; amongſt which water frequently ſtands in liltte puddles, the bottom and ſides of which are generally covered with yellowiſh ſlime, reſembing ſulphur in appearance; and if the ſurface of the ground be ſo ſituated as that the water may drain off, the courſe or channel in which it runs is uſually of the like colour, and even the ſtones are tinged therewith.

But though I have called this a ſtratum, or one layer, yet it is made up of ſeveral ſtrata, conſiſting of coal, of dun, which is an imperfect coal, earth, and ſtony ſubſtance; each being of various thickneſs, ſo that the ſections of the ſtrata of coals are often a conſiderable diſtance from each other: but the pits, or ſhafts, by which the coal is brought to land, are moſtly made in or near the ſection of the ſtratum of clay; ſometimes in that of marl, and ſometimes in the penant, but in neither of theſe two very often; and in ſinking down through theſe, that is, the clay and penant, there is frequently found in the clay very hard lyas, or ſaints-head ſtones; and in the ſtratum of penant, its hardneſs, which appears at its ſection, is generally become ſoft, and, when expoſed to the air and wet, ſubject to fall to pieces.

Memoirs concerning the method of making ſalt-petre in Podolia, written originally in Latin by Dr. Wolf, and tranſlated, for the ſervice of the public, by a gentleman ſub-

* According to the beſt obſervation I have been capable of making, this ſtratum has its courſe through England nearly in a line, N. E. by N. and S. W. by S. This I apprehend to be its bearing, though allowance muſt be made for the projecting of promontories, and the inequality of the ſurfaces, by which means it is in ſome places thrown in oppoſite directions, but in a few miles reſumes its natural courſe.

ſcribing

ſcribing himſelf J. B. *who thinks there are many ſoils in England that would anſwer the ſame purpoſes.*

BY far the greateſt part of the ſalt-petre conſumed in Europe, comes from the Eaſt-Indies: almoſt all that is brought from the Poliſh and Ruſſian Ukraines, or the neghbouring provinces, is obtained by an elixivation from earth and aſhes. Earth may be ſuppoſed to participate both of vegetable and animal ſubſtances; and it is a neceſſary circumſtance that it ſhould remain a long time quiet, uncultivated and deſart. Such is the conſtitution of many parts of the ſoil of the Ukrain and Podolia, as this country has lain uncultivated ever ſince about the third century, when its ancient inhabitants, the Getæ, were driven out by the Bulgarians, whoſe poſterity were more addicted to the breeding of cattle, than to agriculture. To which may be added the Turkiſh and Coſſac wars in the laſt century; which almoſt depopulated the country; yet in theſe our days new colonies having, through its natural fertility, been induced to ſettle here, it is now ſufficiently well cultivated.

This vaſtly extended plain ſeems in a manner covered with black or duſky red earth, to the depth of ſome inches, and ſometimes a foot, under which lies an earth more or leſs white, chalky, calcareous, or a rock indurated out of ſome of theſe, intermixed with ſea ſhells of various kinds, and in ſuch plenty, that in ſome places it ſeems to conſiſt wholly of them. Clay and ſand are rarely to be met with. This earth is of ſo light a texture, and ſo eaſily diſſolved in water, that it is carried away with it, and again reſtored to its dry ſtate by very moderate wind and ſunſhine, when it is very apt to riſe in a fine black duſt, fall upon the cloaths of travellers, and penetrate even to the ſkin.

The country-folks allow the tokens of nitre to be theſe; that the earth or mould be of a deep black, ſoft to the touch, without any ſandineſs, and eaſily reducible to an exceeding fine powder: If it be dungy, it then muſt have a kind of fatneſs; if it diſcovers the cool taſte of nitre; if it ſeems to have been left a long while undiſturbed; and a particular ſymptom of its richneſs, is a nitrous efflorescence, in the form of a white down, which overſpreads it; from which they alſo infer that ſome town, village, ſheep-fold, or burying-place had formerly occupied the ſpot. Above all others they are fond of ſearching for it in certain hillocks, which they call, in their language *mogely*. They are of a conical figure, and undoubtedly artificial, and the monuments of battles fought there.* One of theſe, on account of its ſuperior ſize, called *ſzeroka mogila*, or the great hill, near Granow, probably a very ancient one, has yielded nitre continually for near a hundred yaars paſt. It is near three hundred paces in diameter, and ſeems, from the ſhape of its remains, to have been at leaſt three hundred feet high. It is commonly reported, that a certain queen having by expreſs the account of a neighbouring king being oppreſſed by the enemy, haſtened

* Like the burrows or barrows on Saliſbury plain, and Marlborough Downs.

haſtened with an army to his aſſiſtance, and through miſinformation, ſlew her own huſband; whether any human bones lie buried there, future time muſt diſcover.

For manufacturing their ſaltpetre, they make choice of a place not far from a ſpot rich enough in nitre to keep them continually at work for at leaſt a whole ſummer; and beſides, ſuch as can ſupply them ſufficiently with water and wood at an eaſy expence. The utenſils they employ, are called by one name *maydan*, and conſiſt of the following articles.

1. A large copper boiler, containing about 60 amphors, of 6 gallons, or about 54 pounds of water each.

2. 100 wooden tubs, or fats open on the top with a hole bored near the bottom, which may be ſtopped occaſionally; each of theſe holds a carr of earth, or about 4 or 5 amphors.

3. Two very large caſks of about 100 amphors each.

4. Wide troughs or coolers to the number of 32, holding an amphor each, or ſomewhat more; in which the cryſtallization is to be performed.

5. A ſufficient number of amphors for fetching water.

A pit is dug in the ground, of depth ſufficient for erecting a furnace or fire-place at the bottom, and receiving the boiler ſet in with bricks over it, with its brim on a level with the ſurface, over which brim is conſtructed a circular covering or border of wood about eight inches high, and this lined with lute to keep the key from boiling over. The two great caſks are placed at a ſmall diſtance, being deſtined to receive the ley, which is conveyed into them by hand-ſcoops.

The nitrous earth is firſt of all beat to a coarſe powder with iron ſpades and cleared of ſtones and other hard ſubſtances, laid lightly in heaps, and then brought to the furnace. If it be very rich in nitre (indicated either by its fatneſs, or its downy efflioreſcence) they mix with it ſome of a poorer ſort, in equal quantity, but very black and old: this is, in the language of the chymiſts, with an animal earth they combine one that is purely vegetable. Laſt of all, they add aſhes, to the amount of about a fifth part of the whole, more or leſs, as beſt ſuits their purpoſe, and mix them well together. The aſhes they commonly made uſe of are of the aſh, which they have in great plenty. If they have a quantity of urine at hand they throw it in, but never any quick lime. Thus they prepare a ſuitable ſtock of earth at the beginning of the ſummer, and continue to do ſo as long as is neceſſary, ſo as never to be in want of a freſh ſupply. Some are ſo provident as to prepare beforehand a quantity ſufficient to laſt them through the whole courſe of the enſuing ſummer: but the uſual practice is to bring the earth as ſoon as prepared, to the furnace, which is done in the following manner.

Into one of the abovementionde tubs (N° 2.) they put one carr of the prepared nitrous earth, that is, about four amphors; then they fill up the veſſel with cold water, tho' ſome warm it, and add a quantity of aſhes, if none had been mixed up with the earth, ſtirring the whole well with a wooden ſtaff; then they ſuffer

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it to ſtand twenty-four hours, only ſtirring it by times. After this ſpace they ſuffer the ley to run out at the hole near the bottom, and put it into the two large caſks, (N° 3.) They clear the tubs of the elixiviated earth and put in freſh, and thus the operation is continued as long as the boiling of the nitre laſts.

In this decoction of the nitre, what they call the mother of nitre is abſolutely neceſſary. This is the inſpiſſated lixivium remaining after the cryſtallization of nitre, which cannot itſelf be made to cryſtallize: wherefore, this they keep from one year to the next. And for want thereof the decoction muſt be continued at leaſt a week before any cryſtallization can be performed as it ought to be. The reaſon of which ſeems to be, that the lixivium is not ſuſceptible of a degree of heat ſufficient for ſending off the pinguious and alcaline parts, which neceſſary denſity is given it by the mother of nitre, as it contains a copious calcarious earth diſſolved in the acid of ſalt and nitre. When the lixivium has acquired this pitch, the reſt of the operation is ſoon performed.

Of this mother of nitre they pour one or two tubs into the boiler, to which they add the new ley collected in the great caſks till the boiler is full; then they kindle the fire, and keep the contents boiling near twenty-four hours.

As ſoon as they perceive any marks of cryſtallization on the ſurface, they remove the ley thus decocted and inſpiſſated, into the thirty-two wooden coolers deſcribed in N° 4, and let it remain there twenty-four hours; in which time the cryſtallization being completed, they drain off the mother of nitre, and return it into the boiler. The cryſtals are taken out and dried; but as they never prove clean, they are again diſſolved in clean water, filtered through a flannel bag, and boiled up again in a leſſer boiler to a requiſite thickneſs, and then cryſtallized again, which brings them to be fit for ſale. To the mother of nitre returned into the boiler, they in like manner add more freſh ley from the two great caſks, boil it twenty-four hours, and then cryſtallize. In this manner is the work carried on all the ſummer, and till the winter's froſt puts a ſtop to it.

One day's produce they call *doba*, amounting in weight to at leaſt one *kamien* or 14 *oko*, that is, about twenty-four common pounds. About one *oko*, or three pounds, is loſt in the purification. A ſingle pound of ſalt-petre fetches in time of war, upon the ſpot where it is made, four rubles (17 ſhillings) but in time of peace it is much cheaper.

Now ſuppoſing one carr or four amphors of looſe nitrous earth prepared with aſhes to make four cubic feet; it follows that from 400 cubic feet of ſuch earth, there may be obtained about forty pounds of ſalt-petre, and that one pound of it reſides in ten cubic feet of prepared earth, or in ſeven or eight pounds of the more compact native earth; though ſuch a computation ſhould not be deemed very accurate.

The earth thus cleared of its nitre is caſt out of the tubs in heaps about four feet high, and ſo left for the ſpace of four years, at the end of which the maydan

are brought thither, and a like quantity of nitre is got out of this earth as before. Upon a third working, after ſeven years more, it ſtill yields ſome nitre, but ſcarce enough to defray the coſt.

I make no doubt but this method of making ſalt-petre came hither from the eaſt; and that it is done by a ſimilar proceſs in India and China. Several authors have deſcribed the method of doing it in other parts of Europe. They all require earth and aſhes, and in ſome urine and quick lime is employed. The mixture is expoſed to the air in all of them either open, or under ſheds. Some throw it up in heaps, others depoſit it in pits. Which ever way it is done, it infallibly produces nitre, though in very different quantities, and that chiefly in proportion to the fatneſs of the earth.

Salt-petre is conſiderably different as to its degree of purity. The natural ſort of the firſt decoction always holds a portion of common ſalt. Its cryſtals are not priſmatic, but cubic, and it is much of the ſame goodneſs as that which has a mineral alkaline baſis, whether from common ſalt or otherwiſe; for it aſſumes its figure always from an alkali, not from an acid, notwithſtanding Dr. Linnæus has founded good part of his ſyſtem of foſſils on this error. If too much calcarious earth, and too little aſhes be combined in the decoction, the cryſtals will not be ſo hard, and if diſſolved, may be precipitated by an alkali, which good nitre will not ſubmit to. If the aſhes be from hard wood, the cryſtals will be firmer and larger, as are thoſe of India. If the earth has any metallic intermixture, eſpecially of iron, it will impart a tincture to the nitre. Hence the Indian ſalt-petre is of a rediſh hue, and the fumes of the aqua fortis made from it are remarkably red in compariſon of thoſe from the Poliſh. This latter mixed with Engliſh vitriol, yields a green aqua fortis, which turns a precipitated ſolution of mercury yellow, and by cohobation, white. In a word the chymiſts give the preference to the Poliſh ſalt-petre in all operations.

Nitre may be purchaſed at a much eaſier expence by the Engliſh, Dutch, Poles, and Ruſſians, than it can be made for at home; the reaſon of which is the cheapneſs of wood fuel, which may be had, in a manner, for fetching. In the Pruſſian dominions alone, there is, perhaps, more ſalt-petre made, than in all Europe beſides; and yet I do believe that ſcarce a thouſandth part of what was conſumed in the late wars, was of European produce. Earths rich in volatile ſalt and nitrous particles turn to far better account in manuring land, and feeding the inhabitants, than in furniſhing deſtructive ſalt-petre, which ought rather to be ſought after in barren deſarts.

Proceſs for making Sal Mirabile. By Mr. Fergus, of Piccadilly.

TAKE calcined kelp, any quantity, powder it in an iron mortar, put it into an earthen pan well glazed, and pour upon it boiling water, in the proportion of a quart to a pound: ſtir it about for a little time, and either filtrate or decant the clear liquor

quor from the ſediment: put the clear liquor in a glazed earthen diſh, place it over a gentle fire, and when hot pour in gradually oil of vitriol diluted (viz. to every pound of oil of vitriol a pint and a half of water) till no effervescence ariſes, and you have gained the exact point of ſaturation: then filtrate through paper, or let it ſtand to depurate, and decant the clear liquor; evaporate to a pellicle, and ſet it by to cryſtallize.

By the above proceſs I obtained from a pound and a half of kelp, eight ounces and a half of ſal mirabile; and found, that ſomething leſs than two ounces of ol-vitrioli was ſufficient for the ſaturation.

N. B. Sal mirabile may be alſo made from barilla inſtead of kelp; but not ſo cheap.

An account of a very remarkable bridge in Wales.

THIS bridge is called by the natives Pont y ddy prydd. It lies on the river Taaf, at Lantriſſant near Landaff, about ten miles above Cardiff, in Glamorganſhire. This bridge is no more than 8 feet broad, but it conſiſts of a ſingle arch no leſs than 140 feet wide, part of acircleof 175 feet diameter, ſo as to make the altitude 35 feet. It is, therefore, 45 feet wider than the celebrated Rialto of Venice, and, probably, the wideſt arch in Europe, if not in the world: at leaſt I never read of any thing equal to it, that can be relied upon as matter of fact. The accounts given by ſome of the Popiſh miſſionaries of ſome bridges in China look more like fables than realities.

The building of this bridge is well worth recording. About 12 or 14 years ago William Edward, acountry maſon, a native of the pariſh of Eglwyſilan in that county, agreed with the hundreds of Miſkin and Senghenith to build a bridge over the river Taaf in four arches for 500l. and to give ſecurities to inſure it for ſeven years. This bridge was finiſhed, but a great flood in this rapid river entirely carried it away in leſs than two years time. He was then obliged to begin again. But he thought with himſelf that if he could build a bridge in one arch, it would be out of the power of the flood to hurt him a ſecond time; and he was poſitive in his own mind, that it was practicable. When he made this propoſal to his ſecurities, they looked upon it as a very whimſical ſcheme: However at laſt they conſented, and he ſet about it with all the eagerneſs of a projector. But when he had almoſt finiſhed the arch, the center timber work gave way, and all fell to the bottom.

He now began again, erected ſtronger timber work, fairly completed the arch, the center was knocked off, and it ſtood the wonder and amazement of all beholders: And perſons of curioſity came to ſee it from ſeveral diſtant parts of the kingdom. This was in the year 1755, when a copper plate plan, and proſpect of this ſurpriſing arch were publiſhed, dedicated to lord Windſor, the lord of theſe manors. But the misfortunes of the poor maſon were not yet over. He was no maſter of the rules of architecture,

tecture, and did not underſtand the neceſſity of preſerving an equilibrium in a building of that prodigious bulk: and therefore he muſt buy his knowledge by experience and pay dear for it.

The quantity of matter in the crown of the arch was but little in proportion to that which was neceſſary to be laid on the abutments in order to make the aſcent eaſy. The weight of this matter cauſed ſuch an inequality of preſſure on the arch, that in about a year's time, it cruſhed that ſtupendous pile, and it fell again to the bottom.

By this time the maſon was greatly in debt, and greatly diſcouraged: but the lords Talbot and Windſor (who have eſtates in that neighbourhood) pitied his caſe, and being willing to encourage ſuch an enterpriſing genius, moſt generouſly promoted a ſubſcription among the gentry in thoſe parts, by which a ſum of money was raiſed that enabled him to complete the bridge in one arch for the laſt time.

In order to leſſen the quantity of matter in the abutments preſſing upon the arch, and thereby to bring it to an equipoiſe with that on the crown, he has contrived three circular arches in the abutments: theſe paſs through from ſide to ſide, like round windows, and gradually decreaſe in the aſcent.

This ſurpriſing piece of maſonry, though built of ſtone, coſt but 700l. has ſtood eight or nine years, and it is ſuppoſed that it may ſtand for ages to come, a monument of the ſtrong natural parts, and bold attempts of an ancient Briton.

Method of deſtroying great numbers of rats in a ſmall time.

THE ſociety for encouraging arts, &c. propoſed, ſome time ago, a premium of 50l. for a preparation for taking rats alive. This may at firſt ſeem a trivial, perhaps even ſomewhat drole, affair for that ſociety to trouble themſelves with; but when we conſider that the loſs to the public, by the deſtruction of corn alone, amounts to ſome hundred thouſand pounds a year; beſides that of many other commodities, ſubject to be devoured, or damaged by them; and the very diſagreeable domeſtic annoyance of theſe noxious creatures where they abound, it will appear a matter of ſerious moment.

It was repreſented to the ſociety, that profeſſed rat-catchers have a ſecret for preparing ſome compoſition which will allure all the rats in or about any building, together to one place; and intoxicate or faſcinate them ſo, that they may be taken by the rat-catchers at pleaſure; it was therefore concluded, that, if this ſecret was laid open, any perſon might eaſily practiſe it, without employing profeſſed rat-catchers.

In conſequence of advertiſing this premium, ſeveral candidates offered themſelves; but it appeared, that inſtead of a preparation, that is, ſome compoſition which would allure, faſcinate or intoxicate the rats, ſo that they might be eaſily taken, they had only ſent traps, or machines of various forms and conſtructions.

As thoſe who practiſe rat-catching for a livelihood are not many

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in number, nor always at hand, I ſhall give ſome hints of the principal means, by which, in three or four days time, or ſometimes leſs, they can clear a houſe, and even the out-buildings, of the greateſt part of the rats frequenting it.

The firſt ſtep taken is, to allure the rats all together to one proper place, before they attempt to deſtroy them; for there is ſuch an inſtinctive caution in theſe animals, accompanied with a ſurpriſing ſagacity in diſcovering any cauſe of danger, that, if any of them be hurt, or purſued in an unuſual manner, the reſt take the alarm, and become ſo ſhy and wary, that they elude all the devices and ſtratagems of their purſuers for ſome time after. This place, where the rats are to be aſſembled, ſhould be ſome cloſet, or ſmall room, into which all the openings, but one or two, may be ſecured: and this place ſhould be, as near as may be, in the middle of the houſe, or buildings.

The means uſed to allure them to one place are various: One of thoſe moſt eaſily and efficaciouſly practiſed is, the trailing ſome pieces of their moſt favourite food, which ſhould be of the kind that has the ſtrongeſt ſcent, ſuch as toaſted cheeſe, or broiled red-herring, from the holes or entrances of the cloſet to their receſſes in every part of the houſe, or contiguous buildings. At the extremities, and in different parts of the courſe of this trailed track, ſmall quantities of meal, or any other kind of their food, ſhould be laid, to bring the greater number into the tracks, and to encourage them to purſue it to the place where they are intended to be taken: at that place, when time admits of it, a more plentiful repaſt is laid for them, and the trailing repeated for two or three nights.

Beſides this trailing, and way-baiting, ſome of the moſt expert of the rat-catchers have a ſhorter, and perhaps more effectual, method of bringing them together; which is, the calling them, by making ſuch a kind of whiſtling noiſe as reſembles their own call; and by this means, with the aſſiſtance of the way-baits, they call them out of their holes, and lead them to the repaſt prepared for them at the place deſigned for taking them. But this I apprehend much more difficult to be practiſed than the art of trailing; for the learning the exact notes, or cries, of any kind of beaſts or birds, ſo as to deceive them, is a peculiar talent, which I have ſeldom ſeen attained, though I have known ſome few perſons who could call together a great number of cats: and there is now one man in London, who can bring nightingales, when they are within hearing, about him, and even allure them to perch on his hand, ſo as to be taken.

In the practiſing either of theſe methods, of trailing or calling, great caution muſt be uſed, by the operator, to ſuppreſs and prevent the ſcent of his feet and body from being perceived; which is done by overpowering that ſcent by others of a ſtronger nature. In order to this, the feet are to be covered with cloths rubbed over with aſſafœtida, or other ſtrong ſmelling ſubſtances; and even oil of Rhodium is

ſometimes uſed for this purpoſe, but ſparingly on account of its dearneſs, though it has a very allaring, as well as diſguiſing effect. If this caution of avoiding the ſcent of the operator's feet, near the track, and in the place where the rats are propoſed to be collected, be not properly obſerved, it will very much obſtruct the ſucceſs of the attempt to take them; for they are very ſhy of coming where the ſcent of human feet lies very freſh, as it intimates to their ſagacious inſtinct, the preſence of human creatures, whom they naturally dread. To the above-mentioned means of alluring by trailing, way-baiting, and calling, is added another of a very material efficacy, which is, the uſe of oil of Rhodium, which, like the *nardum Syriacum* in the caſe of cats, has a very extraordinary faſcinating power on theſe animals. This oil is extremely dear, and therefore ſparingly uſed. It is exhaled in a ſmall quantity in the place, and at the entrance of it, where the rats are intended to be taken, particularly at the time when they are to be laſt brought together, in order to their deſtruction; and it is uſed alſo, by ſmearing it on the ſurface of ſome of the implements uſed in taking by the method below deſcribed; and the effect it has in taking off their caution and dread, by the delight they appear to have in it, is very extraordinary.

It is uſual, likewiſe, for the operator to diſguiſe his figure as well as ſcent; which is done by putting on a ſort of gown or cloak, of one colour, that hides the natural form, and makes him appear like a poſt, or ſuch inanimate thing; which habit muſt likewiſe be ſcented as above, to overpower the ſmell of his perſon; and beſides this he is to avoid all motion, till he has ſecured his point of having all the rats in his power.

When the rats are thus enticed and collected, where time is afforded, and the whole in any houſe and out-buildings are intended to be cleared away, they are ſuffered to regale on what they moſt like, which is ready prepared for them, and then to go away quietly for two or three nights; by which means thoſe, which are not allured the firſt night, are brought afterwards, either by their fellows, or the effects of the trailing, &c. and will not fail to come duly again, if they are not diſturbed or moleſted. But many of the rat-catchers make ſhorter work, and content themſelves with what can be brought together in one night or two; but this is never effectual, unleſs where the building is ſmall and entire, and the rats but few in number.

The means of taking them, when they are brought together, are various. Some intice them into a very large bag, the mouth of which is ſufficiently capacious to cover nearly the whole floor of the place where they are collected: which is done by ſmearing ſome veſſel, placed in the middle of the bag, with oil of rhodium, and laying in the bag baits of food. This bag, which before lay flat on the ground with the mouth ſpread open, is to be ſuddenly cloſed when the rats are all in. Others drive, or fright them, by ſlight noiſes or motions, into a bag of a long

a long form, the mouth of which, after all the rats are come in, is drawn up to the opening of the place by which they entered, all other ways of retreat being ſecured. Others, again, intoxicate or poiſon them, by mixing with the repaſt prepared for them, the *coculus Indicus*, or the *nux vomica*. I have ſeen a receipt for this purpoſe, which directed four ounces of the *coculus Indicus*, with twelve ounces of oatmeal, and two ounces of treacle or honey, made into a moiſt paſte with ſtrong beer; but if the *nux vomica* be uſed, a much leſs proportion will ſerve than is here given of the *coculus*. Any ſimilar compoſition of theſe drugs, with that kind of food the rats are moſt fond of, and which has a ſtrong flavour, to hide that of the drugs, will equally well anſwer the end. If, indeed, the *coculus Indicus* be well powdered, and infuſed in the ſtrong beer for ſome time, at leaſt half the quantity here directed will ſerve, as well as the quantity before mentioned. When the rats appear to be thoroughly intoxicated with the *cooulus*, or ſick with the *nux vomica*, they may be taken with the hand, and put into a bag or cage, the door of the place being firſt drawn to, leſt thoſe who have ſtrength and ſenſe remaining eſcape.

By theſe methods, well conducted, a very great part of all the rats in any farm, or other houſe, and the contiguous building, may be taken. But it requires experience and obſervation to perform them well; and there may be circumſtances known to the moſt ſkilful of the rat-catchers, which, if intelligibly communicated, though they would not enable a perſon without practice to manage this affair completely, would yet greatly aſſiſt, and render it more eaſy to be attained. It would therefore be an object worthy the attention of the ſociety, to procure for the public the moſt perfect information that can be attained; to which end the premium ſhould not be confined, as before, to a preparation for taking rats alive; but offered for the moſt eaſy and effectual method for taking rats, without the uſe of baited traps in the common way. The premium ſhould be alſo greater than before; for 50l. is not a conſideration for a man to lay open his art, ſo as to ſtir rivals, that may deprive him of part of his buſineſs, or lower his pay. A noble lord who was before a zealous promoter of this premium, was deſirous laſt year to have advanced 100l. if the ſociety would have joined another to it, to have made up the ſum of 200l. for this purpoſe; but, from ſome accidental neglect, the propoſal was never publicly made to the ſociety; though it is to be regretted, that this generous intention was not purſued, and ſomething further attempted by the ſociety.

Cheap, eaſy, and clean mixture for effectually deſtroying bugs.

TAKE of the higheſt rectified ſpirit of wine (viz. lamp ſpirits) that will burn all away dry, and leave not the leaſt moiſture behind, half a pint; new diſtilled oil, or ſpirit of turpentine, half a pint; mix them together, and

break into it, in ſmall bits, half an ounce of camphire, which will diſſolve in it in a few minutes; ſhake them well together, and with a piece of ſponge, or a bruſh, dipt in ſome of it, wet very well the bed or furniture wherein thoſe vermin harbour and breed, and it will infallibly kill and deſtroy both them and their nits, although they ſwarm ever ſo much. But then the bed or furniture muſt be well and thoroughly wet with it (the duſt upon them being firſt bruſhed and ſhook off) by which means it will neither ſtain, ſoil, nor in the leaſt hurt the fineſt ſilk or damaſk bed that is. The quantity here ordered of this curious neat white mixture, (which coſts but about a ſhilling) will rid any one bed whatſoever, though it ſwarms with bugs. Do but touch a live bug with a drop of it, and you will find it to die inſtantly. If any bug or bugs ſhould happen to appear after once uſing it, it will only be for want of well wetting the lacing, &c. of the bed, or the folding of the linings or curtains near the rings, or the joints or holes in and about the bed, or head-board, wherein the bugs and nits neſtle and breed; and then their being well wet all again with more of the ſame mixture, which dries in as faſt as you uſe it, pouring ſome of it into the joints and holes where the ſponge or bruſh cannot reach, will never fail abſolutely to deſtroy them all. Some beds that have much wood work, can hardly be thoroughly cleared without being firſt taken down; but others that can be drawn out, or that you can get well behind, to be done as it ſhould be, may.

Note; The ſmell this mixture occaſions will be all gone in two or three days; which is yet very wholeſome, and to many people agreeable. You muſt remember always to ſhake the mixture together very well, whenever you uſe it, which muſt be in the day time, not by candle light, leſt the ſubtlety of the mixture ſhould catch the flame as you are uſing it, and occaſion damage.

ANTIQUITIES.

A letter from the learned Father Jacquier, professor of mathematics in the college of Sapienza at Rome, concerning the supposed Egyptian Bust at Turin. [See Vol. V. page 148.]

THEY hand about at Rome an anonymous pamphlet, which seems designed to renew the literary war that was lately carried on in this city, and at Paris, in relation to the famous *Bust*, supposed to be Egyptian, which is to be seen in the cabinet of antiquities of the king of Sardinia.

On the breast and forehead of that figure several characters are visible, which some antiquaries have supposed to be Egyptian. Mr. Needham having compared them with the characters of a Chinese dictionary in the Vatican, perceived a striking resemblance between the two. He drew from this resemblance an argument in favour of the opinion of the learned Monsieur de Guignes, concerning the origin of the Egyptians, Phenicians, and Chinese *(or rather concerning the descent of the latter from the former)* and pronounced without hesitation that the *Bust* was Egyptian.

The pamphlet now before me consists of several letters, in which the sentiment of Mr. Needham is refuted with the greatest warmth, and the anonymous author of it goes so far as to assert that the characters of the Chinese dictionary have been changed and falsified.

May I be allowed to make a few reflections upon this literary contest, of which I myself have been one of the more immediate spectators, and which really appears to me little else than a scene of shuffling and wrangling? There are two things that must be carefully distinguished from each other in this debate, namely, that which has been proved by ocular demonstration, and that which is destitute of all proof, which is utterly uncertain, perhaps false. As to the first, I myself was twice present when the characters in question were compared and confronted, and I could not observe any sensible difference between those of the *Bust* and those of the *Dictionary*. It is true, that at our second meeting, several of the characters in the dictionary appeared blacker than they had formerly done; but it is also certain that the Chinese librarian had only drawn his pen lightly over these characters to render them more distinct without changing, in the least, their form. To demonstrate that this was really the case, it is sufficient to observe, that the characters, that were thus retouched, are frequently repeated in other parts of the dictionary, where (though they have not been touched at all) they bear the very same form. This declaration I have been obliged to make, from a regard to truth, in relation to the first point in this debate, in which the accuracy and probity of Mr. Needham are particularly interested.

With

With respect to the conclusion that Mr. Needham draws from this conformity between the characters of the *Bust* and those of the *Dictionary*, viz. that the Chinese language and characters resembled formerly, nay, perhaps were the very same, with those of the Egyptians, I acknowledge that I cannot see its evidence; nay it appears to me to be manifestly groundless. For let the origin of this bust be what it will, (which, by the bye, is not at all believed Egyptian) and supposing even that the characters it contains be really Egyptian, no conclusion can be drawn from thence with respect to their signification. It may very easily be conceived, that the Chinese language, which comprehends such a prodigious multitude of characters, may have several which resemble the letters made use of in the oriental languages, and still more the Egyptian hieroglyphics, without signifying the same thing that is expressed by these letters and hieroglyphics. The following fact will fully explain my meaning. I sent to Mr. Needham an exact copy of an Egyptian inscription of considerable length, which is to be seen in the house of Monsieur de Breteuil, ambassador from the order of Malta at Rome. Mr. Needham consulted several Chinese dictionaries without being able to find any one of the letters contained in this inscription; and even had he found a few, he could not reasonably have drawn any conclusion from thence in favour of his hypothesis, considering the abundance and richness of these languages, and the number of characters of which they are composed. The adversaries of Mr. Needham, in this literary contest, ought therefore to grant the fact related by this learned gentleman, as this fact is strictly true, and confine their attacks to this hypothesis, in order to shew that the proof he draws from this fact of the sameness of language between the Chinese and Egyptians, and of the descent of the former from the latter, is lame and unsatisfactory. However this famous question may be decided, the discoveries and labours of Monsieur de Guignes on this subject, cannot be too much applauded; and it must be always acknowledged, that the work published at Rome about three years ago by Mr. Needham, in relation to this matter, is far from discovering that depth of erudition, and that inventive genius, that appear in the researches of the learned academician now mentioned.

Description of Syracuse, Palermo, and Enna: From M. D'Orville's Sicula.

THE magnificent and famous city of Syracuse, which contained within its walls four others, was so destroyed by the Saracens in the IXth century that few traces remain of its ancient grandeur. The description which our ingenious traveller has given of it, is by no means the least curious or least laboured part of his book. One has a sensible pleasure in accompanying him; first, into those vast quarries, which like those of the mountain of St. Peter, near Maestrict, take up almost all the ground under the city of Acradina; after that, into those magnificent and terrible quarries which the cruelties

of

of Dionyſius the tyrant have immortalized; and by Tacha, the ſecond quarter, to the ſteep mountain Epipolæ, where that barbarous prince cauſed the famous priſon of Latomiæ to be built. This able critic next diſcourſes on the Hexapylon of Syracuſe, and proves that it was a long edifice built on the cauſe-way which joins Acradina to the iſle of Ortygia, and where by ſix ſucceſſive gates they paſſed from one of thoſe parts of the city to the other: he would place the caſtle of Euryalus on the top of that rock which is now called the Belvedere. Deſcending with him from Euryalus into the plain on the ſouth-ſide, we find the ſource of the fountain Cyane, the marſh Temenites, the river Anapus, and not far from thence, the ruins of the beautiful temple of Jupiter Olympus. Returning afterwards into that quarter of Syracuſe which is called Naples, or the new city, our author makes us obſerve, among other things, the remains of a theatre and an amphitheatre near each other, with ſome quarries, which like the foregoing, after having furniſhed materials for buildings, have been converted into ſepulchres, or appropriated to other uſes. There it is that one ſees the famous priſon which even now retains the name of Dionyſius's ear, becauſe, it is ſaid, that the tyrant had fixed there ſome ſecret pipes, by means of which, on placing his ear at an hole, he heard every thing that the priſoners ſaid of him; a vulgar fable whoſe origin was never gueſſed. The quarry in queſtion was open in the form of an ear; this is all the myſtery. The fourth quarter of Syracuſe was the iſland of Ortygia, which an edifice with ſix gates ſeparated from Acradina: two ſuperb temples were there to be ſeen, dedicated to Minerva and Diana. What remains of the former is at this time dedicated to St. Mary of the Column. We muſt not forget that Ortygia had two harbours, the largeſt, which was on the Eaſt, was almoſt 12000 paces in circumference. Very near this harbour on the left flows the famous fountain of Arethuſa * formerly nearer to the ſmall harbour, as the learned Cluverius has demonſtrated. It is at preſent almoſt reduced to nothing.

After doubling the cape of mount Gerbino, we again ſee trees, and by degrees a fruitful country, as one approaches to Palermo, formerly Panormus. This capital at a diſtance makes no grand appearance, becauſe it lies in a bottom; but the farther one advances the more delightful is the aſpect, eſpecially on the ſea ſide. A large ſtreet which leads from the beach, croſſes all the city like a rope. This ſtreet is cut in the center by another, which forms there a ſquare which is called *I quatre cantoni*, and which is ſuperbly furniſhed with magnificent fountains, adorned with beautiful ſtatues. In general, Palermo is decorated with a multitude of churches, convents, and other buildings which give it a

* *In hac inſula extrema eſt fons aquæ dulcis, cui nomen Arethuſa eſt, incredibili magnitudine, pleniſſimus piſcium; qui fluctu totus operiretur niſi munitione ac mole lapidum a mare disjunctus eſſe.* CICERO.—*For the ſtory of* Alpheus *and* Arethuſa *ſee* Ovid Metam. *b.* 5

ſuperiority

ſuperiority over all the cities of Sicily, and equal it to thoſe moſt admired in Italy; but the modern has there abſorbed the antique. As to inſcriptions, ſcarce any ancient remains are to be found here.

Our author nevertheleſs deſcribes a ſepulchral ſtone on which is to be ſeen the figure of a woman, who has all the air of an Egyptian, without our being able to ſay that ſhe is one; for it ſeems undeniable that the people of Panormus and their neighbours, had adopted the funeral ceremonies that were obſerved in Egypt. Not long ago a ſepulchral grotto was diſcovered in the territory of *Solus*, where were found among a number of vaſes and utenſils, many idols made entirely in the Egyptian taſte. Of all this M. D'Orville gives exact repreſentations.

A ſight which ſtruck him extremely was the ſubterraneous vault of the capuchins near the harbour of Palermo. On entering it one inſtantly ſees with horror above 1000 dead bodies dried up and fixed either to the walls or in the niches of that dreadful cemetery. All theſe ſkeletons are cloathed in grey, like the fathers of the convent, though they admit the dead of all ranks, as well thoſe who are ambitious of that honour, as thoſe to whom it becomes a diſgrace. The attitudes of the latter are various, like the puniſhments of which they were worthy. Here is a figure which, crowned with thorns, ſeems to have been torn in pieces by them. There is another which bends under the weight of an enormous croſs. Others have a rope round the neck; one thinks one can read in their countenances the torments which they have ſuffered. But what makes an admittance after death into this frightful ſociety ſo deſirable is the reputation of the ſanctity of theſe good fathers; and their readineſs to perform miraculous cures, of which our author had the ſatisfaction to ſee the farce. Beſides many of theſe ſpectres begin to be thought prodigies; and upon the whole, great pains are taken to make the devout multitude believe that the preſervation of theſe carcaſes is itſelf a miracle much ſuperior to the powers of nature and of art. It is nevertheleſs well known that in many ſubterraneous places, the nature of the ground alone, by means of ſome precautions, effects this pretended prodigy; witneſs the caverns of Toulouſe and of Cremona, and eſpecially thoſe of the capuchins of St. Ephraim at Naples. M. D'Orville had been there, and he informs us, that inſtead of drying them (as they do) and preparing their ſkeletons with lime, the capuchins of Palermo are contented with hanging for a year in ſome little caves inacceſſible to the air, the corpſes of thoſe who are deſtined to the honour of figuring in this grand aſſembly, which repreſents the dominions of death and the ſhades.

Paſſing by the lake Pergus, one of the moſt beautiful places in the world, M. D'Orville arrived at Enna, now called Caſtro Giovani. It is a ſtrong and ſpacious city built on an eminence, in the center of the iſland, where it commands a moſt delightful and moſt fertile territory. There it is that Gelon dedicated to Ceres that grand and ſuperb temple of which the ancients have ſaid ſo much, but which probably was never finiſhed. From the

the place where it ſtood one diſcovers an immenſe country as far as the citadel of Montreal, which is but four miles from Palermo. To the weſt of Enna is a place called by diſtinction Il Monte, or the mountain; the inhabitants reſort thither to worſhip ſome ſaint, I know not whom, with a devotion ſo fervent, that when our travellers arrived there they were forced to faſt, finding nobody at home; M. D'Orville therefore, in his reſentment, forgot the name of the ſaint, who was too much worſhipped for the welfare of his ſtomach; a fatal forgetfulneſs, for one ſhould have been glad to know under whoſe auſpices one of the moſt famous places in hiſtory now is, the place at which the king of hell iſſued forth, ſeized Proſerpina, and carried her into his doleful dominions. It probably belongs to the Franciſcans, with whom our author paſſed the night. If they had entertained him better he would not have forgotten their tutelary god.

An account of ſome ſubterraneous apartments, with Etruſcan inſcriptions and paintings, diſcovered at Civita Turchino in Italy. Communicated from Joſeph Wilcox, Eſq; F. S. A. by Charles Morton, M. D. S. R. S.

CIvita Turchino, about three miles to the north of Corneto, is an hill of an oblong form, the ſummit of which is almoſt one continued plain. From the quantities of medals, intaglios, fragments of inſcriptions, &c. that are occaſionally found here, this is believed to be the very ſpot where the powerful and moſt ancient city of *Tarquinii* once ſtood: though at preſent it is only one continued field of corn. On the ſouth-eaſt ſide of it runs the ridge of an hill, which unites it to Corneto. This ridge is at leaſt three or four miles in length, and almoſt entirely covered by ſeveral hundreds of artificial hillocks, which are called, by the inhabitants, *Monti Roſſi*. About 12 of theſe hillocks have at different times been opened; and in every one of them have been found ſeveral ſubterranean apartments, cut out of the ſolid rock. Theſe apartments are of various forms and dimenſions: Some conſiſt of a large outer room, and a ſmall one within; others of a ſmall room at the firſt entrance, and a larger one within: Others are ſupported by a column of the ſolid rock, left in the center, with openings on every part, from 20 to 30 feet. The entrance to them all is by a door of about 5 feet in height, by two feet and an half in breadth. Some of theſe have no light but from the door, while others ſeem to have had a ſmall light from above, through an hole of a pyramidical form. Many of theſe apartments have an elevated part that runs all round the wall, being a part of the rock left for that purpoſe. The moveables found in theſe apartments conſiſt chiefly in Etruſcan vaſes of various forms; in ſome indeed have been found ſome plain ſacrophagi of ſtone with bones in them. The whole of theſe apartments are ſtucco'd, and ornamented in various manners: Some indeed are plain; but others, particularly three, are richly adorned; having a double row of Etruſcan inſcriptions running round the upper parts of the walls, and under them a kind of

freeze

freene of figures in painting: Some have an ornament under the figures, which ſeems to ſupply the place of an architrave. There have been no relievos in ſtucco hitherto diſcovered. The paintings ſeem to be in freſco, and are in general in the ſame ſtile as thoſe which are uſually ſeen on the Etruſcan vaſes: though ſome of them are much ſuperior perhaps to any thing as yet ſeen of the Etruſcan art in painting. The paintings, though in general ſlight, are well conceived, and prove that the artiſt was capable of producing things more ſtudied and more finiſhed, though in ſuch a ſubterranean ſituation, almoſt void of light, where the delicacy of a finiſhed work would have been in a great meaſure thrown away, theſe artiſts, as the Romans did in their beſt ages, (when employed in ſuch ſepulchral works) have in general contented themſelves with ſlightly expreſſing their thoughts. But among the immenſe number of thoſe ſubterranean apartments which are yet unopened, it is to all appearance very probable that many and many paintings and inſcriptions may be diſcovered, ſufficient to form a very entertaining, and perhaps a very uſeful work: a work which would doubtleſs intereſt all the learned and curious world, not only as it may bring to light (if ſucceſs attends this undertaking) many works of art, in times of ſuch early and remote antiquity, but as perhaps it may alſo be the occaſion of making ſome conſiderable diſcoveries in the hiſtory of a nation, in itſelf very great, though, to the regret of all the learned world, at preſent almoſt entirely unknown. This great ſcene of antiquities is almoſt entirely unknown, even in Rome. Mr. Jenkins, now reſident at Rome, is the firſt and only Engliſhman who ever viſited it.

Remarks on the Roman Comitia.

WE have no authentic monuments of the earlieſt ages of Rome; there is even great reaſon to believe, that moſt of the ſtories told us of them are fabulous *; and indeed the moſt intereſting and inſtructive part of the annals of nations in general, which is that of their eſtabliſhment, is the moſt imperfect. Experience daily teaches us to what cauſes are owing the revolutions of kingdoms and empires; but as we ſee no inſtances of the original formation of ſtates, we can only proceed on conjectures in treating this ſubject.

The cuſtoms we find actually eſtabliſhed, however, ſufficiently atteſt, that there muſt have been an origin of theſe cuſtoms. Thoſe traditions, alſo, relating to ſuch origin, which appear the moſt rational, and of the beſt authority, ought to paſs for the moſt certain. Theſe are the maxims I have adopted in tracing the manner, in which the moſt powerful and free

* The name of Rome, which it is pretended was taken from Romulus, is Greek, and ſignifies force. The name of Numa is Greek alſo, and ſignifies law. What probability is there, that the two firſt kings of this city ſhould have been accidentally called by names ſo expreſſive of their future actions?

people

people in the univerſe exerciſed the ſovereign authority.

After the foundation of Rome, the riſing republic, that is to ſay, the army of the founder, compoſed of Albans, Sabines and foreigners, was divided into three claſſes; which from that diviſion took the name of tribes. Each of theſe tribes was ſubdivided into ten *Curiæ*, and each *Curiæ* into *Decuriæ*, at the head of which were placed chiefs, reſpectively denominated *Curiones* and *Decuriones*.

Beſides this, there were ſelected from each tribe a body of an hundred cavaliers or knights, called *Centurions*; by which it is evident, that theſe diviſions, not being eſſential to the good order of a city, were at firſt only military. But it ſeems as if the preſaging inſtinct of their future greatneſs, induced the inhabitants of the little town of Rome to adopt at firſt a ſyſtem of police proper for the metropolis of the world.

From this primitive diviſion, however, there reſulted a very ſpeedy inconvenience. This was, that the tribe of Albans, and that of the Sabines always remaining the ſame, while that of the ſtrangers was perpetually increaſing by the concourſe of foreigners, the latter ſoon ſurpaſſed the number of the two former. The remedy which Servius applied to correct this dangerous abuſe, was to change the diviſion; and to ſubſtitute in the room of diſtinction of race, which he aboliſhed, another taken from the parts of the town occupied by each tribe. Inſtead of three tribes, he conſtituted four; each of which occupied one of the hills of Rome, and bore its name. Thus by removing this inequality for the preſent, he prevented it alſo for the future; and in order that ſuch diviſion ſhould not only be local but perſonal, he prohibited the inhabitants of one quarter of the city from removing to the other, and thereby prevented the mixture of their families.

He doubled alſo the three ancient centuries of cavalry, and made an addition of twelve others, but always under their old denomination; a ſimple and judicious method, by which he completely diſtinguiſhed the body of knights from that of the people, without exciting the murmurs of the latter.

Again, to theſe four city tribes Servius added fifteen others, called ruſtic tribes; becauſe they were formed of the inhabitants of the country, divided into as many cantons. In the ſequel were made an equal number of new diviſions, and the Roman people found themſelves divided into thirty-five tribes; the number at which their diviſions remained fixed, till the final diſſolution of the republick.

From the diſtinction between the tribes of city and country, reſulted an effect worthy of obſervation; becauſe we have no other example of it, and becauſe Rome was at once indebted to it for the preſervation of its manners and the increaſe of its empire. It might be conceived the city tribes would ſoon arrogate to themſelves the power and honours of the ſtate, and treat the ruſtics with contempt. The effect, nevertheleſs, was directly contrary. The taſte of the ancient Romans for a country life is well known. They derived

rived this taſte from the wiſe inſtitutor, who joined to liberty the labours of the peaſant and the ſoldier, and conſigned, as it were, to the city, the cultivation of the arts, trade, intrigue, fortune and ſlavery.

Thus the moſt illuſtrious perſonages of Rome, living in the country, and employing themſelves in the buſineſs of agriculture, it was among theſe only the Romans looked for the defenders of their republic. This ſtation, being that of the moſt worthy patricians, was held in univerſal eſteem: the ſimple and laborious life of the villager was preferred to the mean and lazy life of the citizen; and a perſon, who having been a labourer in the country, became a reſpectable houſekeeper in town, was yet held in contempt. It is not without reaſon, ſays Varus, that our magnanimous anceſtors eſtabliſhed in the country the nurſery for thoſe robuſt and brave men, who defended them in time of war, and cheriſhed them in peace. Again Pliny ſays, in expreſs terms, the country tribes were honoured, becauſe of the perſons of which they were compoſed; whereas ſuch of their individuals, as were to be treated with ignominy, were removed into the tribes of the city. When the Sabine, Appius Claudius, came to ſettle in Rome, he was loaded with honours, and regiſtered in one of the ruſtic tribes, which afterwards took the name of his family. Laſtly, the freedmen were all entered in the city tribes, never in the rural; nor is there one ſingle inſtance, during the exiſtence of the republic, of any one of theſe freedmen being preferred to the magiſtracy, although become a citizen.

This was an excellent maxim, but was carried ſo far, that it effected an alteration, and undoubtedly an abuſe, in the police of the ſtate.

In the firſt place, the cenſors, after having long arrogated the right of arbitarrily removing the citizens from one tribe to another, permitted the greater part to regiſter themſelves in whatever tribe they pleaſed; a permiſſion that could ſurely anſwer no good end, and yet deprived theſe officers of one of their ſevereſt methods of cenſure. Beſides, as the great and powerful thus got themſelves regiſtered in the rural tribes; and the freedmen, with the populace only, filled up thoſe of the city; the tribes in general had no longer a local diſtinction; but were ſo ſtrangely mixed and jumbled together, that their reſpective members could be known only by appealing to the regiſters; ſo that the ideas attached to the word tribe, was changed from real to perſonal, or rather became altogether chimerical.

It happened alſo, that the tribes of the city, being nearer at hand, had generally the greateſt influence in the *Comitia*, and made a property of the ſtate, by ſelling their votes to thoſe who were baſe enough to purchaſe them.

With regard to the *Curiæ*, ten having been inſtituted in each tribe, the whole Roman people, included within the walls, made up thirty *Curiæ*, each of which had their peculiar temples, their gods, officers, and feaſts called *Com-*

Compitalia, reſembling the *Paganalia*, afterwards inſtituted among the ruſtic tribes.

At the new diviſion made by Servius, the number thirty not being equally diviſible among the four tribes, he forebore to meddle with this mode of diſtribution; and the *Curiæ*, thus independent of the tribes, formed another diviſion of the inhabitants. No notice, however, was taken of the *Curiæ*, either among the ruſtic tribes, or the people compoſing them; becauſe the tribes becoming a mere civil eſtabliſhment, and another method having been introduced for raiſing the troops, the military diſtinctions of Romulus were dropped as ſuperfluous. Thus, though every citizen was regiſtered in ſome tribe, yet many of them were not included in any *Curiæ*.

Servius made ſtill a third diviſion, which had no relation to the two former, and became in its conſequences the moſt important of all. He divided the whole Roman people into ſix claſſes, which he diſtinguiſhed, neither by perſons nor place, but by property. Of theſe the higher claſſes were filled by the rich, the lower by the poor, and the middle claſſes by thoſe of middling fortunes. Theſe ſix claſſes were ſubdivided into 193 other bodies, called *Centuries*; and theſe were again ſo diſtributed, that the firſt claſs alone comprehended more than half the number of centuries and the laſt claſs only one ſingle century. In this method, the claſs that contained the feweſt perſons, had the greater number of centuries; and the laſt claſs was in number only a ſubdiviſion, although it contained more than half the inhabitants of Rome.

In order that the people ſhould penetrate leſs into the deſign of this latter form of diſtribution, Servius affected to give it the air of a military one. In the ſecond claſs he incorporated two centuries of armourers, and annexed two inſtruments of war to the fourth. In each claſs, except the laſt, he diſtinguiſhed alſo between the young and the old; that is to ſay, thoſe who were obliged to bear arms, from thoſe who were exempted from it on account of their age; a diſtinction, which gave more frequent riſe to the repetition of the *cenſus* or enumeration of them, than even the ſhifting of property. Laſtly he required their aſſembly to be made on the *Campus Martius*, where all thoſe who were of age for the ſervice were to appear with their arms.

The reaſon why he did not purſue the ſame diſtinction of age in the laſt claſs, was, that the populace, of which it was compoſed, were not permitted to have the honour of bearing arms in the ſervice of their country. It was neceſſary to be houſekeepers, in order to attain the privilege of defending themſelves: there is not one private centinel, perhaps, of all the innumerable troops, that make ſo brilliant a figure in the armies of our modern princes, who would not, for want of property, have been driven out with diſdain from a Roman cohort, when ſoldiers were the defenders of liberty.

In the laſt claſs, however, there was a diſtinction made between what they called *Proletarii* and thoſe denominated *Capite Cenſi*. The former, not quite reduced to

nothing, ſupplied the ſtate at leaſt with citizens, and ſometimes on preſſing occaſions with ſoldiers. As to thoſe, who were totally deſtitute of ſubſtance, and could be numbered only by capitation, they were diſregarded as nothing; Marius being the firſt who deigned to enroll them.

Without taking upon me here to decide, whether this third ſpecies of diviſion be in itſelf good or bad, I may venture ſafely to affirm, that nothing leſs than that ſimplicity of manners, which prevailed among the ancient Romans, their diſintereſtedneſs, their taſte for agriculture, their contempt for trade and the thirſt of gain, could have rendered it practicable. Where is the nation among the moderns, in which voracious avarice, a turbulence of diſpoſition, a ſpirit of artifice, and the continual fluctuation of property would permit ſuch an eſtabliſhment to continue for twenty years without overturning the ſtate? Nay it muſt be well obſerved, that the purity of the Roman manners, and the force of a cenſure, more efficacious than the inſtitution itſelf, ſerved to correct the defect of it at Rome; where a rich man was often removed from his own claſs, and ranked among the poor, for making an improper parade of his wealth.

It is eaſy to comprehend from this, why mention is hardly ever made of more than five claſſes, though there were in reality ſix. The ſixth, furniſhing neither the army with ſoldiers, nor the *Campus Martius* * with voters; and being of hardly any uſe in the republic, was hardly ever accounted any thing.

Such were the different diviſions of the Roman people. We will now examine into the effects, of which they were productive, in their aſſemblies. Theſe aſſemblies, when legally convoked, were denominated *Comitia*, and were held in the *Campus Martius*, and other parts of Rome; being diſtinguiſhed into *Curiata*, *Centuriata*, and *Tributa*, according to the three grand diviſions of the people into *Curiæ*; *Centuries*, and *Tribes*. The *Comitia Curiata* were inſtituted by Romulus; the *Centuriata* by Servius, and the *Tributa* by the tribunes of the people. Nothing could paſs into a law, nor could any magiſtrate be choſen, but in the *Comitia*; and as there was no citizen who was omitted in a *Curia*, *Century*, or *Tribe*, it follows, that no citizen was excluded from giving his vote; ſo that the Roman people were truly ſovereigns, both in right and fact.

To make the aſſembly of the *Comitia* legal, and give their determinations the force of law, three conditions were requiſite. In the firſt place it was neceſſary, that the magiſtrate or body convoking them, ſhould be inveſted with proper authority for ſo doing; ſecondly, that the aſſembly ſhould occur on the days permitted by law; and thirdly, that the augurs

* I ſay the *Campus Martius*, becauſe it was there the *Comitia* aſſembled by centuries; in the two other forms, they aſſembled in the *forum* and other places, where the *capite cenſi* had as much influence and importance as the principal citizens.

ſhould be favourable to their meeting.

The reaſon of the firſt condition needs no explanation; the ſecond relates to an affair of police. Thus it was not permitted the *Comitia* to aſſemble on market days, when the country people, coming to Rome on buſineſs, would be prevented from tranſacting it. By the third, the ſenate kept a fierce and turbulent multitude under ſome reſtraint, and opportunely checked the ardour of the ſeditious tribunes. The latter, however, found more ways than one to elude the force of this expedient.

But the laws, and the election of the chiefs, were not the only matters ſubmitted to the determination of the *Comitia*. The Roman people, having uſurped the moſt important functions of government, the fate of Europe might be ſaid to depend on their aſſemblies. Hence the variety of objects that came before them, gave occaſion for divers alterations in the form of theſe aſſemblies, according to the nature of thoſe objects.

To judge of theſe diverſities, it is ſufficient to compare them together. The deſign of Romulus in inſtituting the *Curiæ*, was to reſtrain the ſenate, while he himſelf maintained his influence equally over both. By this form, therefore, he gave to the people all the authority of number, to counterballance that of power and riches, which he left in the hands of the patricians. But, agreeable to the ſpirit of monarchy, he gave more advantage to the patricians, by the influence of their clients, to obtain the majority of votes. This admirable inſtitution of patrons and clients, was a maſter-piece of politics and humanity; without which, the order of patricians, ſo contrary to the ſpirit of the republic, could not have ſubſiſted. Rome alone hath the honour of giving to the world this fine example, of which no abuſe is known to have been made; and which, nevertheleſs, hath never been adopted by other nations.

This diviſion by *Curiæ*, having ſubſiſted under the kings till the time of Servius; and the reign of the laſt Tarquin being accounted illegal, the regal laws came hence to be generally diſtinguiſhed by the name of *Leges Curiatæ*.

Under the republic, the *Curiæ*, always confined to the four city tribes, and comprehending only the populace of Rome, could not arrive either at the honour of ſitting in the ſenate, which was at the head of the patricians, or at that of being tribunes; which, notwithſtanding they were plebeians, were yet at the head of the citizens in eaſy circumſtances. They fell, therefore, into diſcredit, and were reduced to ſo contemptible a ſtate, that their thirty lictors aſſembled to do the whole buſineſs of the *Comitia Curiata*.

The diviſion by *Centuries*, was ſo favourable to ariſtocracy, that it is not at firſt eaſy to comprehend why the ſenate did not always carry their point in the *Comitia Centuriata*, by which the conſuls, cenſors, and prætors, were choſen. It is in fact certain, that out of the hundred and ninety-three centuries, forming the ſix claſſes of the whole Roman people; the firſt claſs containing ninety-eight of them, and the votes being reckon-

ed only by centuries, this firſt claſs alone had more votes than all the others. When the centuries of this claſs, therefore, were found to be unanimous, they proceeded no farther in counting votes; whatever might be determined by the minority, being conſidered as the opinion of the mob. So that it might be juſtly ſaid, that in the *Comitia Curiata*, matters were carried rather by the greater quantity of money, than the majority of votes.

But this extreme authority was moderated by two cauſes. In the firſt place, the tribunes, generally ſpeaking, and always a conſiderable number of wealthy citizens, being in this claſs of the rich; they counterpoized the credit of the patricians in the ſame claſs. The ſecond cauſe lay in the manner of voting, which was this: the centuries, inſtead of voting according to order, beginning with the firſt in rank, caſt lots which ſhould proceed firſt to the election. And to this, the century, whoſe lot it was, proceeded * alone; the other centuries being called upon another day, to give their votes according to their rank, when they repeated the ſame election, and uſually confirmed the choice of the former. By this method, the preference of rank was laid aſide, in order to give it according to lot, agreeable to the principles of democracy.

There was another advantage reſulting from this cuſtom; for the citizens reſiding in the country, had time between the two elections, to inform themſelves of the merit of the candidate thus proviſionally nominated; by which means they might be better enabled to give their vote. But under the pretence of expediting affairs, this cuſtom was in time aboliſhed, and the two elections were made the ſame day.

The *Comitia by Tribes* were, properly ſpeaking, the great council of the Roman people. Theſe were convoked only by the tribunes; by theſe alſo the tribunes were choſen, and by theſe the *Plebiſcita*, or laws of the people, were paſſed. The ſenators were not only deſtitute of rank in theſe aſſemblies, they had not even the right to be preſent at them, but obliged to pay obedience to laws, in the enacting of which they had no vote: they were in that reſpect leſs free than the loweſt citizens. This injuſtice, however, was very ill underſtood, and was in itſelf alone ſufficient to invalidate the decrees of a body, whoſe members were not all admitted to vote. Had all the patricians aſſiſted at theſe *Comitia*, as they had a right in quality of citizens, they could have had no undue influence, where every man's vote was equal, even from the loweſt of the people, to the higheſt perſonage of the ſtate.

It is evident, therefore, that excluſive of the good order that reſults from theſe ſeveral diviſions,

* The century thus preferred by lot was called *prærogativa*, becauſe it was the firſt whoſe ſuffrage was demanded; and hence is derived the word *prerogative*.

in

in collecting the votes of so numerous a people, the form and method of these divisions were not indifferent in themselves; each being productive of effects, adapted to certain views, in regard to which it was preferable to any other.

But without entering into a more circumstantial account of these matters, it is plain from what hath been advanced, that the *Comitia Tribunata* were the most favourable to a popular government, and the *Comitia Centuriata* to an aristocracy. With respect to the *Comitia Curiata*, of which the populace formed the majority, as they were good for nothing but to favour tyrannical designs, they remained in the contemptible state into which they were fallen; even the contrivers of sedition themselves not chusing to employ means, which must have exposed too openly their designs. It is very certain, that the whole majesty of the Roman people was displayed only in the *Comitia Centuriata*, which only were compleat; the *Curiata* wanting the rustic tribes, and the *Tribunata* the senate and patricians.

With regard to the method of collecting the votes, it was, among the primitive Romans, simple as their manners, though still less simple than that of Sparta. Every one gave his vote aloud, which the register took down in writing; the plurality of votes on each tribe, determined the vote of that tribe; and the plurality of votes in the tribes, determined the suffrage of the people. In the same manner also, they proceeded with regard to the *Curiæ* and the *Centuries*. This custom was a very good one, so long as integrity prevailed among the citizens; and every one was ashamed to give his public sanction to an unworthy person or cause. But when the people grew corrupt, and sold their votes, it became necessary to make them give their votes more privately, in order to restrain the purchasers by distrust, and afford knaves an expedient to avoid being traitors.

I know that Cicero censures this alteration, and imputes to it in a great degree, the ruin of the republic. But though I am sensible of all the weight of Cicero's authority in this case, I cannot be of his opinion. I conceive, on the contrary, that the ruin of the state would have been accelerated, had the Romans neglected making this alteration. As the regimen of people in health is not proper for the sick, so it is absurd to think of governing a corrupt people by the same laws, which might have been expedient for them before they were corrupted. There cannot be a stronger proof of this maxim, than the duration of the republic of Venice, the shadow of which still exists solely because its laws are adapted only to bad men.

On this change in the manner of voting, tablets were distributed amongst the citizens, by means of which they could give their suffrage without its being known. On this occasion, other methods were of course made use of in collecting votes; such as counting the number of voices, comparing it with that of the tablets, &c. Not that these methods were so ef-

fectual as to prevent the returning officers * from being often ſuſpected of partiality; and it appeared plain in the ſequel, from the multiplicity of laws made to prevent bribery and corruption in elections, that they could not effect this point.

Toward the decline of the republic, recourſe was had to very extraordinary expedients, to make up for the inſufficiency of the laws. Prodigies were ſometimes played off with ſucceſs; but this ſcheme, though it impoſed on the multitude, did not impoſe on thoſe who influenced them. Sometimes aſſemblies were called ſuddenly, and in great haſte, that the candidates might not have time to create an undue intereſt: at others again, the whole ſeſſions was ſpent in declamation, when it was ſeen that the people were biaſſed to take a wrong ſide. At length, however, ambition eluded all theſe precautions, and it is almoſt incredible that, in the midſt of ſo many abuſes, this immenſe people ſtill continued, by virtue of their ancient laws, to elect their magiſtrates, to paſs laws, to judge cauſes, and to expedite both public and private affairs, with as much facility as could have been done in the ſenate itſelf.

On the origin of the Salic law; from the Abbé Velley's hiſtory of France, lately publiſhed.

HOnorius reigned in the weſt, and Theodoſius the younger in the eaſt, when the Franks croſſed the Rhine, under Pharamond, and pillaged the city of Treves. It was about the year 420, when, being lifted up on a ſhield, he was ſhewn to the whole army, and acknowledged the nation's chief. This was all the inauguration of our ancient kings.

To Pharamond is generally attributed the inſtitution of the famous law called the *Salic*, either from the ſurname of the prince who publiſhed it, or Salogaſt's name who moved it, or from the word *Salichame*, the place where the heads of the nation met to digeſt it. Others will have it to be ſo named, as having been made for the Salic lands. Theſe were noble fiefs which our firſt kings uſed to beſtow on the *Salians*, that is, the great lords of their *Sale* or court, without any other tenure than military ſervice; and for this reaſon, ſuch fiefs were not to deſcend to women, as by nature unfit for ſuch a tenure. Some, again, derive the origin of this word from the *Salians*, a tribe of Franks that ſettled in Gaul in the reign of Julian, who is ſaid to have given them lands on condition of their perſonal ſervice in war. He even paſſed the conditions into a law, which the new conquerors acquieſced in, and called it *Salic*, from the name of their former countrymen.

This law is commonly thought to concern only the ſucceſſion to the crown, or the Salian lands; but this is a two-fold miſtake. It was not inſtituted for the diſpoſal of the crown, nor purely for ſettling the rights of private perſons to feudal lands; it is a collection of ordinances for all ar-

* Cuſtodes, rogatores, ſuffragiorum.

ticles.

ticles. It prescribes punishments for theft, for setting places on fire, for sorcery, and acts of violence; it lays down political rules for behaviour, for public government, methods of procedure, and the preservation of peace and unity among the several members of the state. Of the seventy-one articles which it contains, only one relates to inheritances, and the words are, *In the Salic lands no part of the inheritance is to go to females: it belongs wholly and solely to the males.*

It appears that all we have of this law is an extract from a larger code; and this is proved by citations from the Salic law itself, and certain forms which are not found in our remains of that celebrated ordinance. The sagacious glossographer Ducange speaks of two sorts of *Salic* laws; one subsisting in the times of paganism, and composed by Wisogast, Bosogast, Salogast, and Woldogast, the four chiefs of the nation; the other, a correction of the former, by Christian princes, in that published by Du Tillet, Pithou, Lindembrock, and the great lawyer Bignon, who has added very learned and judicious notes. Du Hallion, but on grounds known only to himself, boldly avers it to be merely a contrivance of Philip the Tall, to exclude from the throne Joan of France, daughter of Lewis X. He must surely have forgotten how minutely that question was discussed in an assembly of the grandees of the realm, when they unanimously adjudged the crown to Philip, to the exclusion of that princess; so persuaded were they of the existence of a Salic law, and that the kingdom of France was Salic land. Soon after arose a like contest, and the decision was the same. The right of Edward III. king of England, did not appear better founded than that of princess Joan, a daughter of France. Philip earl of Valois was generally acknowledged the legal successor of Charles the Handsome. The article determining the right of private persons to Salic land, was declared equally to concern the succession to the crown, and became a fundamental law of the state.

Of modern nobility, especially among the French; from M. Voltaire's Supplement to his General History.

THE word *noble* was not at first a title, including any particular rights hereditary: *nobilitas*, among the Romans, denoted any thing remarkable or notable, and not a class of the citizens. The senate was instituted for the administration of justice; the knights to fight on horseback, when their wealth intitled them to a horse; and the plebeians were often knights, and sometimes senators.

Among the Gauls the principal officers of the towns, and the druids, ruled, and the people obeyed. All countries have had their nominal distinctions of conditions. They that say all men are equal, say very true, if their meaning be, that all men have an equal right to liberty, to property, and to the protection of the laws; but it would be a great mistake, did they imagine that men are to be equal in employments, since they are manifestly not so in their abilities. In this necessary inequality between conditions,

ditions, never was there among the ancients, nor in nine parts of the habitable earth, any thing like the inſtitution of nobility in the tenth part, which is our Europe.

Its laws, its uſages have varied, like every thing elſe. The moſt ancient hereditary nobility was that of the Venetian patricians, who were members of the council, before there was any ſuch thing as a doge, even in the fifth and ſixth centuries; and if, as is ſaid, any deſcendants of theirs be ſtill in being, they are, indiſputably, the firſt nobles in Europe. It was the ſame in the old republics of Italy. This nobility was annexed to the dignity and employment, and not to lands.

Every where elſe nobility became the portion of the proprietors of lands. The nobility of the Herren in Germany, of the Ricos hombres of Spain, of the barons in France and England, was hereditary, purely becauſe their lands, feudal or not feudal, remained in their families. The titles of duke, count, viſcount, and marquis, were at firſt dignities, and offices for life, and afterwards made hereditary, but ſome ſooner than others.

In the declenſion of the race of Charles the Great, almoſt all the ſtates of Europe, republics excepted, were governed as Germany is now; and we have already ſeen that every poſſeſſor of a fief became, as much as he could, a ſovereign on his own eſtate.

It is clear that ſovereigns owed nothing to any one, except what the leſſer had bound themſelves to pay to the great. Thus a caſtellan paid a pair of ſpurs to a viſcount, who paid a falcon to a count, who paid ſome other token of vaſſalage to a duke, all acknowledging the king of their country for their paramount: but none of them were taxable. They owed perſonal ſervice, as in fighting for the ſtate, and for the repreſentative of the ſtate; they fought for their lands, and for themſelves; and hence it is, that to this day, new nobles, and perſons ennobled, who have no land eſtate, are not ſubject to the farmer's land-tax called *la taille*.

The owners of caſtles and lands, of whom in every country, except commonwealths, the body of the nobility conſiſted, ever enſlaved the people on their lands, as much as they could; but the great towns never failed making head againſt them. The magiſtrates of thoſe places could not be brought to be the bondſmen of a count, baron or biſhop, and ſtill leſs of an abbot, pretending to the ſame prerogatives as a baron or count. The cities on the Rhine and the Rhone, and others ſtill more ancient, as Autun, Arles, and Marſeilles eſpecially, flouriſhed before nobles or prelates were heard of. The magiſtracy exiſted ages before fiefs; but the lords of caſtles and the barons got the better of the people almoſt every where; ſo that if the magiſtrates were not the lord's bondſmen, they were his liegemen, as appears from a multitude of old charters, where mayors and aldermen call themſelves burgeſſes of a count, or of a biſhop, or the king's liegemen. Theſe liegemen could not change their habitation, or ſeek a new ſettlement, without their lord's permiſſion, and the pay-

payment of conſiderable duties; a kind of ſervitude ſtill ſubſiſting in Germany.

As fiefs were diſtinguiſhed into free-gifts, which owed no duty to the lord paramount, and into great and ſmall homageable fiefs; ſo were there liegemen, i. e. burgeſſes, who had purchaſed an exemption from all homage or payments to their lord; great burgeſſes who held the municipal employments; and petty burgeſſes, who, in many articles, were ſlaves.

This conſtitution, as it had been formed inſenſibly, in like manner underwent many gradual changes in ſeveral countries, and in others it was totally aboliſhed.

The kings of France, for inſtance, began with ennobling liegemen, giving them titles, without eſtates. The patent of nobility granted in 1095, by Philip I. to Eudes de Mairie, a burgeſs of Paris, is ſaid to have been found in the record office; and unqueſtionably St. Lewis had conferred the like honour on his barber la Broſſe, as he made him his chamberlain; ſo that Philip III. who ennobled Raoul, his houſe ſteward, is not, as ſome have advanced, the firſt king who took on him to change mens condition. Philip the Handſome, in like manner, inveſted one Betroud and ſome other burgeſſes with the title of noble and eſquire, *miles*, and was herein imitated by every ſucceeding king. In 1339 Philip de Valois ennobled Simon de Luci, preſident of the parliament, and likewiſe Nicole Taupin, his wife.

King John, in 1350, conferred nobility on his chancellor William de Dormans, as then no eccleſiaſtical, literary, or judicial poſts gave rank among the nobility; however, the men of letters might ſtile themſelves knight of law, and batchelor of law. Thus John Paſtourel, king's council, was, together with his wife Sedille, ennobled by Charles V. in 1354.

The kings of England alſo created counts and barons, without county or barony. The emperors exerciſed the like privilege in Italy; and even the proprietors of great fiefs ſet up to be fountains of honour: thus a count of Foix was ſeen to arrogate to himſelf the prerogative of ennobling and amending the caſualty of birth, by granting a patent to Maitre Bertrand, his chancellor; and Bertrand's heirs ſtiled themſelves noble; but if the king and nobleſſe acknowledged ſuch nobility, it was entirely a matter of courteſy. The like liberty came to be taken by the owners of lordſhips, as thoſe of Orange, Saluces, and many others.

The military corps of the Franc Archers, or free bowmen, and of the Taupins under Charles VII. being exempted from paying the taille, made free with the title of noble and eſquire, without any kind of permiſſion; time, which ſettles or overthrows cuſtoms and privileges, has confirmed it; and ſeveral eminent families in France are deſcended from theſe Taupins, who made themſelves noble, and who, indeed, well deſerved to be ſuch, for the great ſervices they performed to their country.

The emperors created not only nobles without lands, but counts palatines; a title given to univerſity profeſſors. The author of this cuſtom was Charles IV. and Bartoli

Bartoli was the firſt whom he dignified with this title of count, which honour would no more have gained his children a ſeat in the chapters of cathedrals, than the nobility of the Taupins.

The popes, as pretending to be above emperors, thought their pre-eminence required that they ſhould alſo create palatines and marquiſes; accordingly the legates, who are prefects over the provinces belonging to the holy ſee, were every where liberal of thoſe empty titles; and hence it is that Italy has more marquiſes than lords of fiefs.

In France, when Philip the Handſome had created the court of parliament, the feudal lords, as members of that court, were under a neceſſity of conſulting men of letters, taken, if not from the ſervile claſs, from the free, great, or petty, liegemen. Theſe literati, aping the nobility, ſoon called themſelves knights and batchelors; but the appellation of knight, given them by their clients, did not paſs current at court, and the attorney-general Paſtourel, and even Dormans the chancellor, were obliged to take out patents of nobility. The univerſity ſtudents, after an examination, ſtiled themſelves batchelors, and after a ſecond examination, licentiates, not daring to aſſume to themſelves the title of knights.

It ſeems a great contradiction, that the men of the law, who tried the nobility, ſhould be excluded from the rights of nobility; yet this contradiction prevailed every where: but in France, during their lives they enjoyed the ſame exemptions as the nobles. Their rights, indeed, did not intitle them to a ſeat in the aſſembly of the ſtates general as lords of fiefs, to carry a hawk on their fiſt, or to ſerve perſonally in war, but only not to pay the taille, and to ſtile themſelves Meſſire.

The want of laws, thoroughly clear and well underſtood, and the variation of cuſtoms and laws, have ever been the characteriſtic of France. The condition of the gownmen long continued uncertain. Theſe courts of juſtice, by the French called parliaments, often tried ſuits relating to claims to nobility, which had been ſet up by the children of lawyers. The parliament of Paris, in 1540, decreed, that the children of John le Maitre, a king's council, ſhould ſhare their inheritance as nobles; and in 1578, it gave a like ſentence in favour of a common counſeller, named Menager. But the learned in the law were of different opinions concerning the privileges which cuſtom was inſenſibly annexing to the gown. Louet, a counſellor of the parliament, affirmed, that the children of judicial officers ſhould ſhare as commoners, and that only the grandſons were intitled to the right of elderſhip, as obſerved among the nobility.

The opinions of the lawyers were no rule for the court, Henry III. in 1582, declaring, by edict, *That no perſon, unleſs of noble deſcent, ſhould henceforth aſſume the title of noble, and the appellation of eſquire.*

Henry IV. was leſs rigid and more equitable, when in the edict for regulating the taxes, iſſued in 1600, he declared, tho' in terms ſomething vague, that they who ſerved

ſerved the public in honourable poſts, may give a beginning of nobility to their deſcendant.

This diſpute which had laſted ages, ſeemed to be cloſed in July 1644, under Lewis XIV. yet it proved otherwiſe. Here we break in on time, that we may throw the neceſſary light on this article. You will ſee in the age of Lewis XIV. what a civil war was raiſed in Paris in the firſt years of his reign. During this war, it was, that the parliament of Paris, the chamber of accounts, the court of aids, and all the other provincial courts, obtained in 1644, *That the privileges of hereditary nobility, of gentlemen, and of barons of the kingdom, ſhould deſcend to the children of counſellors, and preſidents, who had ſerved twenty years, or who died in their poſts.* Thus their rank appeared to be determined by this edict.

Could it be thought that after this Lewis XIV. in 1669, being himſelf preſent in parliament, ſhould revoke thoſe privileges, and continue theſe officers of judicature only in their ancient rights, repealing all the privileges of nobility, granted to them and their deſcendants in 1644, and ſince till the year 1669?

Lewis XIV. almighty as he was, has not been able to deprive ſo many perſons of a right, which had been given to them in his name. It is no eaſy matter for one man to oblige ſuch a number of people to part with what they accounted their property. The edict of 1644 has prevailed; the courts of judicature have enjoyed the principles of nobility, and the nation has never thought of diſallowing them in their judges.

Whilſt the magiſtrates of the ſuperior courts had been diſputing about their ſtation, ever ſince the year 1300, the burgeſſes of towns, together with their principal officers, were under the like uncertainty. Charles V. ſurnamed the Wiſe, to ingratiate himſelf with the Pariſians, granted them ſeveral honorary privileges, as to uſe coats of arms, and to hold fiefs, without paying the fine of francfiefs. But this privilege Henry III. limited to the mayor and four aldermen. The mayors and aldermen of ſeveral cities had the ſame privileges, ſome by ancient cuſtom, others by patent.

The moſt ancient grant of nobility in France, to a quill employment, was to the king's ſecretaries. They were originally what the ſecretaries of ſtate are now, and were called *Clercs du Secret*; and as they wrote under the king, and drew up his orders, ſome honourable diſtinction was proper. This right to nobility, after twenty years ſervice, ſerved as a precedent, and model for the judicial officers.

Herein is principally ſeen the extreme variation of the French cuſtoms. The ſecretaries of ſtate who, at firſt, only ſigned inſtruments, and could give them no authenticity, only as privy clerks and notaries to the king, are now grown to be miniſters, and the almighty organs of the almighty prerogative. They have farther acquired the title of monſeigneur, formerly given only to princes and knights; and the king's ſecretaries have been degraded to the chancery, where their ſole buſineſs is to ſign patents. Their uſeleſs number has been increaſed to three

three hundred, merely to get money; and by this paltry expedient, French nobility is perpetuated in near six thousand families, the heads of which successively purchased those employments.

Patents of nobility have been granted to a prodigious number of other professions, bankers, surgeons, merchants, officers of a prince's household, and clerks; and, after some generations, they stile themselves most high and mighty lords. These titles have very much lessened the ancient nobility, without doing any great honour to the more recent.

In course of time the personal service of knights and esquires totally ceasing, and the states general being no longer held, the privileges of the whole nobility, ancient and modern, are reduced to paying the capitation in lieu of the taille. They whose father was not an alderman, counsellor, nor had been ennobled, were denoted by names now become reproachful, as *villain* and *roturier*.

Villain comes from *ville*, a town, as formerly the only nobles were the owners of castles; and *roturier* from *rupture de terre*, breaking ground, or tillage, otherwise called *roture*. Thus it was often the case, that a lieutenant general, or a gallant officer, who had received many an honourable wound in the service, was subject to the taille, whilst the son of a clerk was on a footing, with respect to immunities, with the principal officers of state. It was not till 1752, that this derogatory error was mended, through the representations of M. d' Argenson.

This ridiculous multiplicity of nobles, without either offices, or real nobility; this degrading distinction between the ennobled idler, who contributes nothing to the state, and the useful *roturier*, who pays the *taille*; those offices which are set to sale, and have the empty title of esquire annexed to them: nothing of all this is seen elsewhere; it is a wretched blunder in government to debase the greater part of a nation. In England forty livres a year in land makes a man *homo ingenuus*, a free Englishman, with a vote in chusing a representative in parliament. All who are not merely craftsmen, or artificers, are accounted gentlemen; and strictly speaking, the only real nobles are they who sit in the house of lords, representing the ancient barons and peers of the state.

In many countries, privileges of blood give no manner of superiority or advantage; a man is considered only in the quality of a citizen; nay, at Basil, no gentleman is capable of holding any post, unless he renounces all his privileges as a gentleman. Yet in all free states, the magistrates stile themselves noble; and, certainly, to have been, from father to son, at the head of a republic, is a very glorious nobility. But through custom and prejudice, five hundred years of such nobleness would, in France, be no exemption from the *taille*, nor gain admittance into the poorest chapter in Germany.

These usages are the very picture of vanity and fickleness; and this is the least tragical part of the history of mankind.

On

On the true derivation of some modern English words. From Burn's history of the Poor laws.

IN the rating of wages, it is set forth, how much by the day shall be taken by tilers, and other coverers of fern and straw, and their knaves. — The Saxon *knapa*, or *knafa*, signifies a *servant*. And the thatchers to this day have an instrument that holds their straw, which they call a *knape*. What is observable here is, the generous notions entertained by our ancestors, with respect to an action base and ignoble. They would not suppose it to belong to a freeman, but appropriated it to the inferior rank of people. A *knavish* action was such as was fit only for one of the meaner servants. A *villain* was a degree lower than the thatcher's servant; for he was the drudge of his lord, not even susceptible of property in many cases, but was himself of the goods and chattels of his master. Therefore an offence, accompanied with extraordinary aggravation, was termed *villainous*. As much as to say, iniquity degrades a man, and ranks him among the vulgar.—So a man who was devoid of courage, and consequently unfit for the military profession, was denominated a *cow-herd* (for that, most probably, is the genuine etymology of what we now call *coward*.)—On the other hand, these inferior persons were not behind hand with the great men (for there never wanted humour even among the common people:) If a man was half an ideot, or remarkably deformed in body; they would style him *my lord*. And by way of ridicule of their jovialness and hospitality, when a man was in liquor, they would call him *as drunk as a lord*.—These, and many other like expressions and customs, which have come down to our days, were originally feudal, having relation to the military institution, and the distinction betwixt lord and vassal.

And here it is observable upon the subject of cloathing, how the restrictions as to the goodness or quantity of cloth in their garments, vanished by degrees, as manufactures increased; until, at length, in queen Elizabeth's reign, the current received a contrary direction, and the wearing of the manufactures was enjoined: concerning which, the first act that hath occurred, is that 13 Eliz. c. 19. by which it is required, that every person above the age of six years (except maidens, ladies, and gentlewomen; and lords, knights, and gentlemen of 20 marks a year) shall wear upon the sabbath, and holiday, upon their head one cap, of wool, knit, thicked, and dressed in England, on pain of 3s. 4d. The form of which cap may be seen in some of the pictures of those days.

And here curiosity will suggest certain reflections upon that noble subject of painting. Why are persons pictured in Grecian or Roman habits, and in such habits as never were worn in any age? Would it not be infinitely more entertaining, to see every person drawn in his own proper dress? It would be a work becoming the pencil of a skilful artist, from such paintings as may be yet found, from history, from acts of parliament, and other sumptuary laws, to exhibit a series of persons, of both sexes, in the habits of their respective ages, at proper intervals.

A TABLE

A TABLE *exhibiting the Standard, Weight, Value, and a comparative View of* Engliſh *ſilver money from* King William I. *Ann.* 1066, *to* K. George III. *Ann.* 1763.

Years of the Kings and Queens Reigns, or the Dates of the ſeveral Mint Indentures.		Standard of the ſilver at each period.		Number of ſhillings, &c. the pound, or 12 ounces Troy of ſtandard ſilver, has been coined into at each period.		Weight of 20 ſhillings in tale of ſtandard ſilver at each period.			Weight of the fine ſilver contained in twenty ſhillings in tale at each period.			Value of the ſame 20 ſhillings in tale in our preſent money.			Proportion of money at each period to our preſent money.	Value of the ounce of ſtandard ſilver in preſent money.		Value of the ounce of fine ſilver at each period.	
		Fine ſilver	Allay.																
Anni Regnorum.	A. D.	Oz. Dwts.	Oz. Dwts.	s.	d.	Oz.	Dwts.	Grs.	Oz.	Dwts.	Grs.	l.	s.	d.		s.	d.	s.	d.
William I.	1066	11 2	0 18	XXI	IV	11	5	0	10	8	3	2	18	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2.9062	5	2	1	$11\frac{1}{8}$
William II.	1087	11 2	0 18	XX	0	12	0	0	11	2	0	3	2	0	3.1000	5	2	1	$9\frac{5}{8}$
28th Edw. I. IV.	1300	11 2	0 18	XX	III	11	1	1	10	19	6	3	1	$2\frac{3}{4}$	3.0614	5	2	1	$9\frac{7}{8}$
20th. Edw. III. VI.	1347	11 2	0 18	XXII	VI	10	13	8	9	17	8	2	15	$1\frac{3}{8}$	2.7557	5	2	2	$0\frac{3}{8}$
27th ſame	1354																		
18th Richard II.	1395	11 2	0 18	XXV	0	9	12	0	8	17	$14\frac{1}{2}$	2	9	$7\frac{1}{4}$	2.4802	5	2	2	3
3d Henry IV.	1402																		
13th ſame	1412	11 2	0 18	XXXII	0	7	10	0	6	18	18	1	18	9	1.9375	5	2	2	$10\frac{5}{8}$
9th Henry V.	1422	11 2	0 18	XXX	0	8	0	0	7	8	0	2	1	4	2.0666	5	2	2	$8\frac{1}{2}$
1ſt Henry VI.	1422	11 2	0 18	XXXVII	VI	6	8	0	5	18	10	1	13	$0\frac{3}{4}$	1.6531	5	2	3	$4\frac{1}{2}$
4th ſame	1426	11 2	0 18	XXX	0	8	0	0	7	8	0	2	1	4	2.0666	5	2	2	$8\frac{1}{2}$
24th ſame	1446																		
39th ſame	1461																		
4th Edw. IV. VII.	1464																		
5, 8, 11, 16, & 22d.	1482	11 2	0 18	XXXVII	VI	6	8	0	5	18	10	1	13	$0\frac{3}{4}$	1.6531	5	2	3	$4\frac{1}{2}$
1ſt Richard III.	1483																		
9th Henry VII.	1494																		

20th ſame	1505	11	2	0	18	XXXX	o	6	0	0	5	11	0	1	11	0	1.5560	5	2	3	$7\frac{1}{8}$
1ſt Henry VIII.	1509	11	2	0	18	XXXXV	o	5	6	16	4	18	16	1	7	$6\frac{5}{8}$	1.3776	5	2	4	$0\frac{5}{8}$
23d & 18th ſame	1532																				
24th ſame	1543	10	0	2	0	XXXXVIII	o	5	0	0	4	3	8	1	3	$3\frac{1}{4}$	1.1635	4	$7\frac{7}{8}$	4	$9\frac{5}{8}$
36th ſame	1545	6	0	6	0	XXXXVIII	o	5	0	0		10	0	0	13	$11\frac{5}{8}$	0.6984	2	$9\frac{1}{2}$	8	0
37th ſame	1546																				
1ſt Edw. VI. IX.	1547	4	0	8	0	XXXXVIII	o	5	0	0	1	13	8	0	9	$3\frac{3}{4}$	0.4656	1	$10\frac{3}{8}$	12	0
2d ſame	1548																				
3d ſame	1549	6	0	6	0	LXXII	o	3	6	16	1	13	8	0	9	$3\frac{3}{4}$	0.4656	2	$9\frac{1}{2}$	12	0
5th ſame	1551	3	0	9	0	LXXII	o	3	6	16	0	16	16	0	4	$7\frac{7}{8}$	0.2328	1	$4\frac{3}{4}$	24	0
6th ſame	1553	11	1	0	19	LX	o	4	0	0	3	13	16	1	0	$6\frac{7}{8}$	1.0286	5	$1\frac{3}{4}$	5	$5\frac{1}{8}$
1ſt Mary I.	1553	11	0	1	0	LX	o	4	0	0	3	13	8	1	0	$5\frac{3}{4}$	1.0239	5	$1\frac{1}{2}$	5	$5\frac{1}{2}$
2d Elizabeth	1560																				
19th & 25th Do.	1583	11	2	0	18	LX	o	4	0	0	3	14	0	1	0	8	1.0333	5	2	5	$4\frac{7}{8}$
43d ſame	1601																				
2d James I.	1605																				
2d Charles I	1627																				
12th Charles II.	1661	11	2	0	18	LXII	o	3	17	10	3	11	$14\frac{3}{4}$	1	0	0	1.0000	5	2	5	7
22d ſame	1671																				
1ſt Ja. II. to the	1685																				
3d George III.	1763																				

Example. The famous chapel (adjoining to the eaſt end of Weſtminſter Abbey) built by King Henry VII. A. D. 1503, coſt 14,000 l. which ſum, multiplied by 1,6531, anſwers to 23,143 l. of our preſent money; which is equivalent in point of expence of living, &c. to 90,000 l. in our days.—(*Vide Fleetwood*'s *Chronicon Precioſum*, and *Anderſon*'s *Hiſtorical and Chronological Deduction of Commerce, &c.*)

Every ſingle article of the above table, I have calculated from *datas* collected chiefly from thoſe excellent coin notes inſerted at the end of each reign in Nic. Tindal's tranſlation of Rapin's Hiſtory of England, 2d edit. fol. London, 1732; but not without conſulting Biſhop Fleetwood's *Chronicon Precioſum*; Ste. Martin Leake's Hiſtory of Engliſh coins; and others. H——h, Oct. 23, 1764.

Of surnames. From Bigland's observations on marriages, &c.

NAMES, called in Latin *nomina, quasi notamina,* were first imposed for the distinction of persons, which we now call Christian names; after, for difference of families, which we call surnames, and have been especially respected, as whereon the glory and credit of men is grounded, and by which the same is conveyed to the knowledge of posterity; and every person had in the beginning one only proper name, as Adam, Joseph, &c.

Camden observes, he never could find an hereditary surname in England before the conquest: The surnames in Doomsday book were brought in by the Normans, who not long before had taken them, but they were mostly noted with a *de*, as John de Babington, Walter de Hugget, Nicholas de Yateman, &c. or Ricardus filius Roberti, &c. and that they were not settled among the common people till about the reign of King Edward II. Surnames not from fire, but because superadded to the Christian name. Places anciently gave names to persons, and not the contrary: William son of Roger Fitz Valerine, in the time of King Henry I. being born in the castle of Howard in Wales, did from thence assume the name of the place of his birth, and transmitted the same to his posterity. Edward of Caernarvon, so called from the place of his nativity; so Thomas of Brotherton, from the village in Yorkshire wherein he was born; and John of Gaunt, from the city of Gaunt in Flanders, where he was born.

The custom of taking names from towns and villages in England, is a sufficient proof of the ancient descents of those families who are still inhabitants of the same places. Some took their names from their offices; others from forests; others from woods; others from hills, dales, trees, &c. others from fishes.

From the alteration of names in early times it is, that at this day many families, who have neglected to keep up their pedigrees, are at a loss to account for the similar bearing of arms, whose names are so widely different, while yet they might all originally be descended from one and the same common ancestor. Little (for instance) would any one think to look for the family and arms of Botteville, in the present Viscount Weymouth; and this only, because in the reign of Edward IV. John de Botteville resided at one of the inns at court, and from thence was named John of Th'Inne (Thynne;) and as little would he suspect, that that poor deserted and exposed infant at Newark upon Trent, commonly called *Tom among us*, should afterwards be metamorphosed into the great Dr. Thomas Magnus.

Of ancient palaces, their gardens, and embellishments.

THE hotel de St. Paul, built by Charles V. was, as is specified in his edict of 1364, intended to be the hotel of great diversions. Like all the royal houses of those times, it had large towers; such additaments being thought to give an air of domination and majesty to the building. The gardens, in-

inſtead of yews and lindens, were planted with apple, pear, and cherry-trees, and vines, beſides beds of roſemary and lavender, peaſe and beans, and very large arbours or bowers. The inner courts were lined with pigeon-houſes and full of poultry, which the king's tenants were obliged to ſend, and here they were fattened for his table, and thoſe of his houſhold. The beams and joiſts in the principal apartments were decorated with tin fleur de lys's gilt. All the windows had iron bars, with a wire lattice, to keep the pigeons from coming to do their ordure in the rooms. The glazing was like that of our ancient churches, painted with coats of arms, emblems, and ſaints. The ſeats were joint ſtools, forms, and benches; the king had armed chairs, with red leather and ſilk fringes. The beds were called couches, when ten or twelve feet ſquare, and thoſe of only ſix feet ſquare, couchettes; theſe large dimenſions ſuited a cuſtom which ſubſiſted for a long time in France, that gueſts particularly valued were kept all night, and in the ſame bed with the maſter of the houſe. Charles V. uſed to dine about eleven, ſupped at ſeven, and all the court were uſually in bed by nine in winter, and ten in ſummer. "The queen (ſays Chriſtina Pilan) agreeable to an old and laudable cuſtom, for preventing any idle or looſe thought at table, had a learned man, who during the meal, related the actions, or made an elogium of ſome deceaſed perſon, eſpecially of one eminent for piety." It was in Charles's reign that the mode aroſe of emblazoning apparel; the women wore their huſband's ſhield on the right ſide of their gowns, and their own on the left. This faſhion laſted near a century.

Abſtract of the ſtatutes relating to the brewery at Paris, made in the year 1268, in the reign of St. Louis, and remaining in force to this day; ſome of which perhaps it would be well to adopt in England.

1. NO one ſhall brew beer, or remove it in drays, or otherwiſe, on Sundays, or on the ſolemn feaſts of the holy virgin.

2. No one ſhall ſet up in the brewery, who has not ſerved a five years apprenticeſhip, and been three years a partner with a regular brewer.

3. Nothing ſhall enter into the compoſition of beer, but good malt and hops well gathered, picked and cured, without any mixture of buck-wheat, darnel, &c. to which end the hops ſhall be inſpected by juries, to ſee that they are not uſed after being heated, mouldy, damp, or otherwiſe damaged.

4. No beer yeſt ſhall be hawked about the ſtreets, but ſhall be all ſold in the brew-houſes to bakers and paſtry-cooks, and to no others.

5. Beer yeſt brought by foreigners ſhall be inſpected by a jury before it is expoſed to ſale.

6. No brewer ſhall keep in or about his brewhouſe, any cows, oxen, hogs, geeſe, ducks, or poultry, as being inconſiſtent with cleanlineſs.

7. There ſhall not be made in any brew-houſe more than one brewing of fifteen ſeptiers at

the moſt, of ground malt, in a day. *This article, I believe is not kept up to.*

8. Caſks, barrels, and other veſſels, made to hold beer, ſhall be marked with the brewer's mark, in the preſence of a jury.

9. No brewer ſhall take away from a houſe he ſerves with beer, any veſſels which do not belong to him.

10. Thoſe who ſell beer by retail, ſhall be ſubject to the inſpection of juries.

11. No one ſhall be a partner but with a maſter brewer.

12. No maſter brewer ſhall have more than one apprentice at a time, which apprentice ſhall not be turned over without the conſent of a jury. *There has been an exception to the former part of this article for a few years paſt; a man may now have two apprentices, provided one of them commences his firſt year, when the other commences his fifth.*

13. No one ſhall take a partner who has quitted his maſter, without the conſent of ſuch maſter.

14. A widow may employ ſervants in brewing, but may not take an apprentice.

15. Maſter brewers ſhall not entice away one another's apprentices nor ſervants.

16. There ſhall be three maſters elected for jurymen, two of which ſhall be changed every two years.

17. Such jurymen ſhall have a power to inſpect in the city and ſuburbs.

In Paris beer is ſubject to pay a duty; and that the king may not be defrauded, the brewer is obliged, every brewing, to give notice to a commiſſioner, of the day and hour he ſhall kindle the fire of his boiler, under the penalty of fine and confiſcation.

As the buſineſs of brewing cannot be carried on without employing large quantities of corn, it is uſual, in times of ſcarcity, for the king to put a ſtop to it for a certain number of weeks.

Several years ago there was a great ſtir about the brewers vending their yeſt to the bakers and paſtry-cooks, under pretence that it was unwholeſome; but the medical faculty of Paris decided to the contrary.

A deſcription of the moſt honourable city of London, written originally in Latin by William Fitzſtephen, a monk of Canterbury, who floriſhed in the reign of Henry II.

The ſituation thereof.

AMongſt the noble cities of the world, honoured by fame, the city of London is the one principal ſeat of the kingdom of England, whoſe renown is ſpread abroad very far: but ſhe tranſporteth her wares and commodities much farther, and advanceth her head ſo much the higher. Happy ſhe is in the wholeſomeneſs of the air, in the chriſtian religion, her munition alſo and ſtrength, the nature of her ſituation, the honour of her citizens, the chaſtity of her matrons. Very pleaſant alſo in her ſports and paſtimes, and repleniſhed with honourable perſonages. all which I think meet proper ſeverally to conſider.

The temperateneſs of the air.

In this place, the calmneſs of the air doth mollify men's minds, not corrupting them with venereal luſts, but preſerving them from ſavage and rude behaviour, and ſea-

ſoning their inclinations with a more kind and free temper.

Of Chriſtian religion there.

There is in the church of St. Paul a biſhop's ſee: it was formerly a metropolitan, and as it is thought, ſhall recover the ſaid dignity again, if the citizens ſhall return back into the iſland; except, perhaps, the archiepiſcopal title of St. Thomas the martyr, and his bodily preſence, do perpetuate this honour to Canterbury, where now his reliques are. But ſeeing Saint Thomas hath graced both theſe cities, namely, London with his birth, and Canterbury with his death; one place may alledge more againſt the other, in reſpect of the ſight of that ſaint, with the acceſſion of holineſs. Now, concerning the worſhip of God in the Chriſtian faith; there are in London and the ſuburbs 13 greater conventual churches, beſides 126 leſſer pariſh churches: [139 churches in all.]

Of the ſtrength and ſcite of the city.

It hath on the eaſt part a tower palatine, very large and very ſtrong; whoſe court and walls riſe up from a deep foundation: The mortar is tempered with the blood of beaſts. On the weſt are two caſtles well fenced. The wall of the city is high and great, continued with ſeven gates, which are made double, and on the north diſtinguiſhed with turrets by ſpaces. Likewiſe on the ſouth London hath been incloſed with walls and towers, but the large river of Thames, well ſtored with fiſh, and in which the tide ebbs and flows, by continuance of time, hath waſhed, worn away, and caſt down thoſe walls. Farther, above in the weſt part, the king's palace is eminently ſeated upon the ſame river; an incomparable building, having a wall before it, and ſome bulwarks: It is two miles from the city, continued with a ſuburb full of people.

Of the gardens planted.

Every where without the houſes of the ſuburbs, the citizens have gardens and orchards planted with trees, large, beautiful, and one joining to another.

Of their paſtures.

On the north ſide are fields for paſture, and open meadows, very pleaſant; among which the river waters do flow, and the wheels of of the mills are turned about with a delightful noiſe. Very near lieth a large foreſt, in which are woody groves of wild beaſts. In the coverts whereof do lurk bucks and does, wild boars and bulls.

Of the fields.

The arable lands are no hungry pieces of gravel ground; but like the rich fields of Aſia, which bring plentiful corn, and fill the barns of thoſe that till them with an excellent crop of the fruits of Ceres.

Of their wells.

There are alſo about London, on the north of the ſuburbs, choice fountains of water, ſweet, wholeſome, and clear, ſtreaming forth among the gliſtening pebble ſtones: in this number, Holywell, Clarkenwell, and St. Clement's well, are of moſt note, and frequented above the reſt, when ſcholars, and the youth of the city take the air abroad in the ſummer evenings.

Of the citizens honour.

This city is honoured with her men, graced with her arms, and peopled with a multitude of inhabitants. In the fatal wars under king Stephen, there went out to a

muſter, men fit for war, eſteemed to the number of 20,000 horſe-men armed, and 60,000 footmen. The citizens of London are known in all places, and reſpected above all other citizens, for their civil demeanour, their good apparel, their table, and their diſcourſe.

Of the chaſtity of their matrons.

The matrons of this city may be paralleled with the Sabine women.

Of their ſchools.

In London three famous ſchools are kept at three principal churches, St. Paul's, the Holy Trinity, and St. Martin's, which they retain by privilege and ancient dignity: yet, for the moſt part, by favour of ſome perſons, or ſome teachers, who are known and famed for their philoſophy, there are other ſchools there upon good-will and ſufferance. Upon the holidays, the maſters with their ſcholars celebrate aſſemblies at the feſtival churches. The ſcholars diſpute there, for exerciſe ſake: ſome uſe demonſtrations, others topical and probable arguments; ſome practiſe enthymemes, others do better uſe perfect ſyllogiſms; ſome exerciſe themſelves in diſpute for oſtentation, which is practiſed among ſuch as ſtrive together for victory; others diſpute for truth, which is the grace of perfection. The ſophiſters, which are diſſemblers, turn verbaliſts, and are magnified when they overflow in ſpeech and abundance of words; ſome alſo are entrapped with deceitful arguments. Sometimes certain orators, with rhetorical orations, ſpeak handſomely to perſuade, being careful to obſerve the precepts of art, who omit no matter contingent. The boys of divers ſchools wrangle together in verſifying, or canvaſs the principles of grammar, or diſpute the rules of the preterperfect and future tenſes. Some there are that in epigrams, rhimes, and verſes, uſe that trivial way of abuſe. Theſe do freely abuſe their fellows, ſuppreſſing their names, with a feſcennine railing liberty: theſe caſt out moſt abuſive jeſts; and with ſocratical witty expreſſions, they touch the vices of their fellows, or perhaps of their ſuperiors, or fall upon them with a ſatricial bitterneſs, and with bolder reproaches than is fit. The hearers prepared for laughter, make themſelves merry in the mean time.

How the affairs of the city are diſpoſed.

The ſeveral craftſmen, the ſeveral ſellers of wares, and workmen for hire, all are diſtinguiſhed every morning by themſelves, in their places as well as trades. Beſides, there is in London upon the river's bank a public place of cookery, among the wines to be ſold in the ſhips, and in the wine cellars. There every day we may call for any diſh of meat, roaſt, fryed, or boiled; fiſh both ſmall and great; ordinary fleſh for the poorer ſort, and more dainty for the rich, as veniſon and fowl. If friends come upon a ſudden, wearied with travel, to a citizen's houſe, and they be loth to wait for curious preparations and dreſſings of freſh meat; let the ſervants give them water to waſh, and bread to ſtay their ſtomach, and in the mean time, they run to the water ſide, where all things that can be deſired are at hand. Whatſoever multitude of ſoldiers, or other ſtrangers, enter into the city at any hour of the day

day or night, or else are about to depart; they may turn in, bait here, and refresh themselves to their content, and so avoid long fasting, and not go away without their dinner. If any desire to fit their dainty tooth, they take a goose; they need not to long for the fowl of Africa, no, nor the rare Godwit of Ionia. This is the public cookery, and very convenient for the state of a city, and belongs to it, Hence it is, we read in Plato's Gorgias, that next to the physician's art is the trade of cooks.

Of Smethfield.

Without one of the gates is a certain field, plain, [or smooth] both in name and situation. Every Friday, except some greater festival come in the way, there is a fine sight of good horses to be sold: many come out of the city to buy or look on, to wit, earls, barons, knights, citizens, all resorting thither. It is a pleasant sight there to behold the animals, well fleshed, sleek, and shining, delightfully walking, and their feet on either side up and down together by turns; or else trotting horses, which are more convenient for men that bear arms; these, although they set a little harder, go away readily, and lift up and set down together the contrary feet on either side. Here are also young colts of a good breed, that have not been well accustomed to the bridle; these fling about, and by mounting bravely, shew their mettle. Here are principal horses, strong and well limbed. Here also are breast horses, perhaps race horses, fit to be joined by couples, very fair and handsome, and sleek about the ears, carrying their necks aloft, being well fleshed, and round about the buttocks. In another part stand the country people with cattle, and commodities of the field, large swine, and kine with their udders strutting out, fair bodied oxen, and the woolly flock. There are also cart horses, fit for the dray, or the plough, or the chariot: and some mares big with foal; together with others that have their wanton colts following them close at their side.

Concerning shipping and merchandize.

To this city merchants bring in wares by ships from every nation under heaven. The Arabian sends his gold, the Sabean his frankincense and spices, the Scythian, arms; oil of palms from the plentiful wood: Babylon her fat soil, and Nylus his precious stones: the Seres send purple garments; they of Norway and Russia, trouts, furs, and sables; and the French their wines.

Its antiquity and government.

According to the report of chronicles, it is more ancient than the city of Rome: for both being descended from the same Trojan stock: Brute builded this, before Remus and Romulus did the other. Whence still it useth the same ancient laws, and common institutions. For this our city, like to that, is distinguished by wards and several limits; it hath sheriffs every year, answerable to their consuls; it hath aldermen, enjoying the dignity of senators, besides inferior magistrates; it hath also common sewers, and conveyances for waters in the streets. Concerning causes in question, there are several places and courts for causes deliberative, demonstrative,

and judicial: upon their ſet days alſo they have their common council and great aſſemblies.

The only plagues of London are immoderate drinking of idle fellows, and frequent fires.

Of ſports and paſtimes.

Every Sunday in Lent, after dinner, a company of young men ride out into the fields on horſes which are fit for war, and principal runners: every one among them is taught to run the rounds with his horſe.

The citizens ſons iſſue out through the gates by troops, furniſhed with lances and warlike ſhields: the younger ſort have their pikes not headed with iron, where they make a repreſentation of battle, and exerciſe a ſkirmiſh. There reſort to this exerciſe many courtiers, when the king lies near hand, and young ſtriplings out of the families of barons and great perſons, which have not yet attained to the warlike girdle, to train and ſkirmiſh. Hope of victory inflames every one: the neighing and fierce horſes beſtir their joints. and chew their bridles; and cannot endure to ſtand ſtill: at laſt they begin their race, and then the young men divide their troops; ſome labour to outſtrip their leaders, and cannot reach them; others fling down their fellows, and get beyond them.

In Eaſter holidays they counterfeit a ſea fight: a pole is ſet up in the middle of the river, with a target well faſtened thereon, and a young man ſtands in a boat which is rowed with oars, and driven on with the tide, who with his ſpear hits the target in his paſſage; with which blow, if he breaks the ſpear and ſtand upright, ſo that he hold footing, he hath his deſire; but if his ſpear continue unbroken by the blow, he is tumbled into the water, and his boat paſſeth clear away: but on either ſide this target two ſhips ſtand in-ward, with many young men ready to take him up after he is ſunk, as ſoon as he appeareth again on the top of the water: the ſpectators ſtand upon the bridge, and in ſolars upon the river, to behold theſe things, being prepared for laughter.

Upon the holidays all ſummer, the youth is exerciſed in leaping, ſhooting, wreſtling, caſting of ſtones, and throwing of javelins fitted with loops for the purpoſe, which they ſtrive to fling beyond the mark; they alſo uſe bucklers, like fighting men. As for the maidens, they have their exerciſe of dancing and tripping 'till moonlight.

In winter, almoſt every holiday before dinner, the foaming boars fight for their heads, and prepare with deadly tuſhes to be made bacon; or elſe ſome luſty bulls, or huge bears, are baited with dogs.

When that great moor, which waſheth Moorfields, at the north wall of the city, is frozen over, great companies of young men go to ſport upon the ice, and bind to their ſhoes, bones, as the legs of ſome beaſts, and hold ſtakes in their hands, headed with ſharp iron, which ſometimes they ſtrike againſt the ice; and theſe men go on with ſpeed, as doth a bird in the air, or darts ſhot from ſome warlike engine: ſometimes two men ſet themſelves at a diſtance, and run one againſt another, as it were at tilt, with theſe ſtakes, wherewith

wherewith one or both parties are thrown down, not without ſome hurt to their bodies; and after their fall, by reaſon of the violent motion, are carried a good diſtance one from another; and whereſoever the ice doth touch their head, it rubs off all the ſkin and lays it bare; and if one fall upon his leg or arm, it is uſually broken: but young men being greedy of honour, and deſirous of victory, do thus exerciſe themſelves in counterfeit battles, that they may bear the brunt more ſtrongly when they come to it in good earneſt.

Many citizens take delight in birds, as ſparrow-hawks, goſs-hawks, and ſuch like, and in dogs to hunt in the woody ground. The citizens have authority to hunt in Middleſex, Hertfordſhire, all the Chilterns, and in Kent, as far as Gray-Water.

Natives of London.

The city of London hath brought forth ſome who have ſubdued many kingdoms, and the empire of Rome to themſelves; and many others, who being lords of this world, were deified in another.

And in the times of chriſtianity, it brought forth the noble Emperor Conſtantine, who gave the city of Rome and all the Imperial arms to God, and to St. Peter, and Silveſter the pope, whoſe ſtirrup he refuſed not to hold, and pleaſed rather to be called, Defender of the holy Roman church, than emperor of the world. And leſt the peace of our lord the pope ſhould ſuffer any diſturbance, by the noiſe of ſecular affairs, he left the city, and beſtowed it on the pope, and founded the city of Conſtantinople for his own habitation. London alſo in theſe latter times hath brought forth famous and magnificent princes: Maud the Empreſs, King Henry the Third, and Thomas the archbiſhop, a glorious martyr of Chriſt, than whom no man was more innocent, or more devoted to the general good of the Latin world.

A Declaration, or briefe Collection, of one Year's Expence for all the ordinarie Dinners and Suppers, with her Majestie (Queen Elizabeth's) *Breakefast, and Breakefast for the Guard, furnished with Bread, Beere, Ale, Gascoigne Wine, and with all Manner of Victhals of Flesh and Fish, rated accordinge the Market Prices, at higheſt Condition; wherein is sett downe what the Charge of one Messe of everie Diett is in one Flesh Day and one Fish Day, and so* 220 *Flesh, and* 145 *Fish Days, and then for* 365 *Days, being one whole.*

		l. s. d.		l. s. d.	In 365 days, beinge one yeare. l. s. d.	
Her Majestis diett for breakfast, dinner, and supper,	For 1 flesh day For 1 fish day	11 7 2 9 11 9	For 220 flesh days For 145 fish days	2493 16 8 1390 9 9	3804 19 5	— The Queens Majestie.
A diett of 10 and 10 dishes dinner and supper,	For 1 flesh day For 1 fish day	3 1 8½ 1 19 8½	For 220 flesh days For 145 fish days	678 15 10 287 17 8½	966 13 6½	— Lord Steward.
					966 13 6½	— Lord Chamberlain.
					966 13 6½	— Mr. Threſorer.
					966 13 6½	— Mr. Comptroller.
A diett of 7 and 7 dishes, dinner and supper,	For 1 flesh day For 1 fish day	1 17 4 1 4 11	For 220 flesh days For 145 fish days	410 13 4 180 12 11	591 6 3½ 591 6 3	Ladies in ye presens.
					591 6 3	— Lady Roxborogh.
					591 6 3	— Maids of honor.
					591 6 3	— Mr. Cofferer.
					591 6 3	— To Mrs. of houshold.
A diett of 6 and 6 dishes, dinner and supper,	For 1 flesh day For 1 fish day	1 10 3¼ 1 1 9½	For 220 flesh days For 145 fish days	333 4 2 157 19 9½	491 3 11½	— 2 Clerks kitchen.
A diett of 5 and 5 dishes, dinner and supper,	For 1 flesh day For 1 fish day	1 5 5½ 0 17 6½	For 220 flesh days For 145 fish days	280 0 1 127 3 6½	407 4 4½	— Gentlemen Vshers.
					407 4 4½	— Chaplains and Subamu.
					407 4 4½	— Presens waiters, or second of ladys.
					407 4 4½	— Phisition.
					407 4 4½	— The Robbs.
					407 4 4½	— Mr. Cooke.
A diett of 4 and 4 dishes, dinner and supper,	For 1 flesh day For 1 fish day	0 13 6½ 0 9 3	For 220 flesh days For 145 fish days	148 19 2 67 1 3	216 0 5	— Mrs. Anslowe.

A diett of 3 and 3 dishes, dinner and supper,	For 1 flesh day	0	10	0	For 220 flesh days	110	0	0	—	153 10 0	— Mrs. Southwell.
	For 1 fish day	0	6	0	For 145 fish days	43	10	0		153 10 0	— Mr. Secretaris chamb.
										153 10 0	— Apoticary.
										153 10 0	— Shirurgion.
										153 10 0	— Stending wardrob.
										153 10 0	— Remouing wardrob.
										153 10 0	— Porters at gate.
										153 10 0	— Counting howse.
										153 10 0	— Pantry.
										153 10 0	— Grome Porter.
										153 10 0	— Eury.
										153 10 0	— Seller.
										153 10 0	— Buttry.
										153 10 0	— Scullary, Woodyeard.
										153 10 0	— Poultry, Scaldinghous.
										153 10 0	— Pastry.
										153 10 0	— Larders.
										153 10 0	— Priuy kitchen.
A diett of 2 and 2 dishes, dinner and supper,	For 1 flesh day	0	5	10	For 220 flesh days	64	3	4	—	85 18 4	— Maids of honors chamber.
	For 1 fish day	0	3	0	For 145 fish days	21	15	0		85 18 4	— Maids of honors chamber.
										85 18 4	— Lady Walsingham's chamber.
										85 18 4	— Mrs. Specker.
										85 18 4	— Sempster.
										85 18 4	— Tire-maker.
										85 18 4	— Confexionary, Waffrey.
										85 18 4	— Chandry.
										85 18 4	— Picher-howse, Almary.
										85 18 4	— Lander for ye body.
										85 18 4	— Lander for ye table.
A diett of 2 dishes serued once a day, dinner or supper,	For 1 flesh day	0	3	2	For 220 flesh days	34	16	8	—	45 19 2	— Howse-keeper.
	For 1 fish day	0	1	6	For 145 fish days	11	2	6			
A diett of 1 dish, serued once a day, for breakfast,	For 1 flesh day	0	11	8	For 220 flesh days	128	6	8	—	168 7 6	— The Guarde.
	For 1 flesh day	0	5	2	For 145 fish days	40	0	10			
A diett of 1 and 1 dish, at dinner and supper,	For 1 flesh day	0	4	0	For 220 flesh days	44	0	0	—	55 2 6	— Boyllinge-howse.
	For 1 fish day	0	1	0	For 145 fish days	11	2	6			

The somme of all thes diets is 18431 l. 13 s. ouer and beside sacke, renish and sweet wins, butter, eges, saussery, frutry, spicery, confexionary, lights, wood, coall, carriages, expences *extra curia*, supplies and necessarys in ye offices, wages, bordwages, command, and wast, liueris, almes, offerings and the stable so much as paid by Mr. Cofferer.

ESSAYS.

Remarks on Simplicity in Writing.

IF we examine the writers whoſe compoſitions have ſtood the teſt of ages, and obtained that higheſt honour. "the concurrent approbation of diſtant times and nations," we ſhall find that the character of ſimplicity is the unvarying circumſtance, which alone hath been able to gain this univerſal homage from mankind. Among the Greeks, whoſe writers in general are of the ſimple kind, the divineſt poet, the moſt commanding orator, the fineſt hiſtorian, and deepeſt philoſopher, are, above the reſt, conſpicuouſly eminent in this great quality. The Roman writers riſe towards perfection according to that meaſure of ſimplicity which they mingle in their works: indeed, they are all inferior to the Greek models. But who will deny, that Lucretius, Horace, Virgil, Livy, Terence, Tully, are at once the ſimpleſt and beſt of Roman writers? unleſs we add the noble Annaliſt, who appeared in after times; who, notwithſtanding the political turn of his genius, which ſometimes interferes, is admirable in this great quality; and by it, far ſuperior to his contemporaries. 'Tis this one circumſtance that hath raiſed the venerable Dante, the father of modern poetry, above the ſucceeding poets of his country, who could never long maintain the local and temporary honours beſtowed upon them; but have fallen under that juſt neglect, which time will ever decree to thoſe who deſert a juſt ſimplicity for the florid colourings of ſtyle, contraſted phraſes, affected conceits, the mere trappings of compoſition and Gothic minutiæ. 'Tis this hath given to Boileau the moſt laſting wreath in France, and to Shakeſpear and Milton in England; eſpecially to the laſt, whoſe writings are more unmixed in this reſpect, and who had formed himſelf entirely on the ſimple model of the beſt Greek writers and the ſacred Scriptures. As it appears from theſe inſtances, that ſimplicity is the only univerſal characteriſtic of juſt writing; ſo the ſuperior eminence of the ſacred Scriptures in this prime quality hath been generally acknowledged. One of the greateſt critics in antiquity, himſelf conſpicuous in the ſublime and ſimple manner, hath borne this teſtimony to the writings of Moſes and St. Paul; and by parity of reaſon we muſt conclude, that had he been converſant with the other ſacred writers, his taſte and candour would have allowed them the ſame encomium.

It hath been often obſerved, even by writers of no mean rank, that the "Scriptures ſuffer in their credit "by

" by the disadvantage of a literal " version, while other ancient writ- " ings enjoy the advantage of a free " and embellished translation." But in reality those gentlemen's concern is ill placed and groundless: for the truth is, " That most o- " ther writings are impaired by " a literal translaton; whereas, " giving only a due regard to " the idiom of different languages, " the sacred writings, when li- " terally translated, are then in " their full perfection."

Now this is an internal proof, that in all other writings there is a mixture of local, relative, exterior ornament, which is often lost in the transfusion from one language to another. But the internal beauties, which depend not on the particular construction of tongues, no change of tongue can destroy. Hence the Bible composition preserves its native beauty and strength alike in every language, by the sole energy of unadorned phrase, natural images, weight of sentiment, and great simplicity.

It is in this respect like a rich vein of gold, which, under the severest trials of heat, cold, and moisture, retains its original weight and splendor, without either loss or alloy; while baser metals are corrupted by earth, air, water, fire, and assimilated to the various elements thro' which they pass.

This circumstance then may be justly regarded as sufficient to vindicate the composition of the sacred Scriptures, as it is at once their chief excellence, and greatest security. It is their excellence, as it renders them intelligible and useful to all; it is their security, as it prevents their being disguised by the false and capricious ornaments of vain or weak translators. We may safely appeal to experience and fact for the confirmation of these remarks on the superior simplicity, utility, and excellence of the stile of the holy Scripture. It there any book in the world so perfectly adapted to all capacities? that contains such sublime and exalting precepts, conveyed in such an artless and intelligible strain, that can be read with such pleasure and advantage by the lettered sage and the unlettered peasant? T. W.

A Dissertation on the Gods of the ancient heathens, and the use which Hesiod and Homer have made of them. By Dr. Peter Templeman.

IN the famous controversy in France concerning the comparative merits of the ancients and moderns, Mons. De la Motte and Madam Dacier having entered the lists, the illustrious Fenelon, Archbishop of Cambray, kept up a correspondence by letters with Mons. De la Motte; and in one of the subjects of debate, viz. On the characters of the Gods and Heros in Homer, has these words in a letter addressed to Mons. De la Motte:

" Encore une fois j' abandonne " sans peine les Dieux et les Héros " d' Homere; mais ce Poëte ne " les a pas faits, il a bien fallu " qu'il les prît tels qu'il les " trouvoit. Leurs défauts ne sont " pas les siens. Le Monde idolâtre et sans Philosophie ne lui " fournissoit que des Dieux qui " déshonoroient la Divinité, et " que des Héros qui n' étoient " guéres honnêtes gens—— Ainsi

Homere

" Homere atteint au vrai but de " l'Art, quand il repreſente les " objets avec grace, force et vi- " vacité. Le ſage et ſçavant " Pouſſin auroit peint le Gueſelin " et Bouſcicaut ſimples et couverts " de fer, pendant que Mignard " auroit peint les Courtiſans du " dernier ſiécle avec des fraiſes " ou des colets montez ou avec " des canons, des plumes, de la " broderie et des cheveux friſez. " Il faut obſerver le vrai et peindre " d' après Nature." *Reflexions ſur la Critique par Monſieur De la Motte*, p. 82.

Plato however ſpeaks of Heſiod and Homer as having *framed* thoſe fables of the Gods which are found in their writings,

" Ους (*videlicet* μυθους) Ησιοδος " τε ϗ Ομηρος ημιν ελεγετην, ϗ " οι αλλοι ποιηται. ϗτοι γαρ τε " μυθους τοις ανθρωποις ψευδεις " ΣΥΝΤΙΘΕΝΤΕΣ ελεγον τε ϗ " λεγουσι. *Vid. Platonis Op. Tom.* 2. p. 377. *et ſeq. Edit. Serrani. Which* (namely *Fables*) *both Heſiod and Homer have told us, and other poets have followed their example: for they* FRAMING *falſe fables have publiſhed and ſtill continue to publiſh them.*

Herodotus in ſpeaking of Heſiod and Homer in his *Euterpe* cap. 53 ſays,

" Ουτοι δε εισι οι ποιησαντες " θεογονιην ελλησι, ϗ τοισι θεοι- " σι τας επωνυμιας δοντες, ϗ " τιμας τε ϗ τεχνας διελοντες, " ϗ ειδεα αυτων σημηναντες. *Theſe are the perſons who have made a Theogony for the Greeks, and have given additions to the names of the Gods, and have diſtributed to them their reſpective honours and employments, and have declared their forms or appearances.*

Where by the way I would obſerve, that both Herodotus and Plato place Heſiod in the order of words before Homer; from whence one would be inclined to think that they conſidered Heſiod ſomewhat prior in time to Homer.

The ingenious author of the *Enquiry into the life and writings of Homer* obſerves upon the paſſage I have cited from Herodotus, " What he ſays of Heſiod and " Homer muſt be *true* in one or o- " ther of theſe reſpects, that either " they brrought their *entire Syſtem* " immediately from Egypt and " publiſhed it in Greece, till then " ignorant of religion and rites; " or that without other aſſiſtance " than their own wits, they *con-* " *trived* it wholly themſelves; but " they are both equally incre- " dible." *Vid.* p. 98. 1ſt *Edition.*

The reaſon aſſigned for this aſſertion, and the refinement upon it, are directly contrary not only to the words of Herodotus but alſo of Plato, which I have cited above: And indeed I do not ſee with what pretence of juſtice Plato could expel them from his republic, but on ſuppoſition that they were the *inventors* of ſuch fables as he finds fault with.

The truth of the matter with reſpect to the Gods in the moſt ancient heathen world ſeems to be this: Thoſe perſons who had diſtinguiſhed themſelves by doing ſome acts of public utility, or were endued with ſome extraordinary perfections of mind or body, were thought to become immortal after this life, and to reſide, ſome in the regions above, others on the earth and in the ſea, and others in the infernal regions, with diſtinct powers and offices aſſigned them: Although they were become immortal, yet they were ſtill

ſtill conſidered as having human forms, but much enlarged and more beautiful; they were conſidered likewiſe able to change their uſual forms into others, either of men or brutes, and to become viſible or inviſible as they choſe. Beſides this, they were conſidered as having the ſame paſſions, vices and frailties, as when they were in this life.

Cicero ſpeaks of the origin of the Gods in the light I have repreſented it above in his Tuſculan Diſputations, Lib. 1. cap. 12. "Tum prope cœlum nonne humano genere completum eſt? Si vero ſcrutari vetera, et ex his ea quæ Scriptores Græciæ prodiderunt eruere coner, ipſi illi, majorum gentium Di qui habentur, hinc a nobis profecti in cœlum reperientur."

Such were the wild and extravagant notions of the old heathen world concerning the Gods, when Heſiod and Homer aroſe; who in conformity to ſuch notions framed fables of the Gods, and introduced them into their poems; for which they were afterwards cenſured by the more enlightened philoſophers.

Our *Britiſh* Homer, Milton, has in like manner built upon the common received notions among chriſtians, of angels and devils, thoſe beautiful fables which adorn his poem; and has this advantage over the *Grecian* Homer, that not the moſt rigid philoſopher or divine have made the leaſt objection to them.

The method of making Gods from men was revived in the politeſt age of the Roman empire; and the conſideration of its having been a cuſtom from the moſt remote antiquity ſoftens in ſome meaſure the extravagant compliment which Virgil pays to Auguſtus in the begining of the firſt Georgic,

"Tuque adeo, quem quæ ſint habitura deorum
"Concilia, incertum eſt; urbiſne inviſere, Cæſar,
"Terrarumque velis curam: et te maximus orbis
"Auctorem frugum, tempeſtatumque potentem
"Accipiat, cingens materna tempora myrto:
"An Deus immenſi venias maris, ac tua nautæ
"Numina ſola colant: tibi ſerviat ultima Thule,
"Teque ſibi generum Tethys emat omnibus undis.

Even ſo grave an hiſtorian as Tacitus does not ſcruple to uſe the expreſſion *Divus* Auguſtus.

As to the expreſſion πατηρ ανδρων τε θεων τε, which is applied by Homer to Jupiter, it is very certain that the word πατηρ was frequently uſed to ſignify *ſuperior* or *ſupreme*: * And the word *pater* in Latin, *padre* in Italian, and *père* in French, are uſed in the ſame ſenſe. It will occur to every one's thoughts what a pompous title is given in our own language to the venerable heads of the church: And no wonder that the rude and ignorant heathens ſhould

* Monſ. De la Motte very juſtly ridicules the notion of thoſe who interpret the word πατηρ as *real Father* or *Creator* of Gods and men: in conſequence of which abſurd interpretation Jupiter muſt have been the father of Saturn, of whom he was the ſon; father of Juno, who was his ſiſter; and father of Neptune and Pluto, who were his brothers.

adore

adore such as had been illustrious, after their death; when we are taught to bend the knee to those right reverend prelates, whilst living.

Essays on the importance of an inquiry into the human mind.

THE fabric of the human mind is curious and wonderful, as well as that of the human body. The faculties of the one are with no less wisdom adapted to their several ends, than the organs of the other. Nay, it is reasonable to think, that, as the mind is a nobler work and of a higher order than the body, even more of the wisdom and skill of the Divine Architect hath been employed in its structure; it is therefore a subject highly worthy of inquiry on its own account, but still more worthy on account of the extensive influence which the knowledge of it hath over every other branch of science.

In the arts and sciences, which have least connection with the mind, its faculties are the engines which we must employ; and, the better we understand their nature and use, their defects and disorders, the more skilfully we shall apply them, and with the greater success. But, in the noblest arts, the mind is also the subject upon which we operate. The painter, the poet, the actor, the orator, the moralist, and the statesman, attempt to operate upon the mind in different ways, and for different ends; and they succeed, according as they touch properly the the strings of the human frame. Nor can their several arts ever stand on a solid foundation, or rise to the dignity of science, until they are built on the principles of the human constitution.

Wise men now agree, or ought to agree, in this, that there is but one way to the knowledge of nature's works, the way of observation and experiment. By our constitution, we have a strong propensity to trace particular facts and observations to general rules, and to apply such general rules to account for other effects, or to direct us in the production of them. This procedure of the understanding is familiar to every human creature in the common affairs of life, and it is the only one by which any real discovery in philosophy can be made.

The man who first discovered that cold freezes water, and that heat turns it into vapour, proceeded on the same general principles, and in the same method, by which Newton discovered the law of gravitation and the properties of light. His 'Regulæ Philosophandi' are maxims of common sense, and are practised every day in common life; and he who philosophises by other rules, either concerning the material system or concerning the mind, mistakes his aim.

Conjectures and theories are the creatures of men, and will always be found very unlike the creatures of God. If we would know the works of God, we must consult ourselves with attention and humility, without daring to add any thing of our's to what they declare. A just interpretation of nature is the only sound and orthodox philosophy; whatever we add of our own is apocryphal and of no authority.

All

All our curious theories of the formation of the earth, of the generation of animals, of the origin of natural and moral evil, ſo far as they go beyond a juſt induction from facts, are vanity and folly, no leſs than the Vortices of Deſcartes, or the Archæus of Paracelſus. Perhaps the philoſophy of the mind hath been no leſs adulterated by theories, than that of the immaterial ſyſtem. The theory of ideas is indeed very ancient, and hath been very univerſally received: but, as neither of theſe titles can give it authenticity, they ought not to ſcreen it from a free and candid examination; eſpecially in this age, when it hath produced a ſyſtem of ſcepticiſm, that ſeems to triumph over all ſcience, and even over the dictates of common ſenſe.

All that we know of the body is owing to anatomical diſſection and obſervation; and it muſt be by an anatomy of the mind, that we can diſcover its powers and principles.

But it muſt be acknowledged, that this kind of anatomy is much more difficult than the other; and therefore it needs not ſeem ſtrange, that mankind have made leſs progreſs in it. To attend accurately to the operations of our minds, and make them an object of thought, is no eaſy matter even to the contemplative, and, to the bulk of mankind, is next to impoſſible.

An anatomiſt, who hath happy opportunities, may have acceſs to examine, with his own eyes, and with equal accuracy, bodies of all the different ages, ſexes, and conditions; ſo that what is defective, obſcure, or preternatural in one, may be diſcerned clearly, and in its moſt perfect ſtate, in another. But the anatomiſt of the mind cannot have the ſame advantage: It is his own mind only that he can examine with any degree of accuracy and diſtinctneſs. This is the only ſubject he can look into: He may, from outward ſigns, collect the operations of other minds; but theſe ſigns are for the moſt part ambiguous, and muſt be interpreted by what he perceives within himſelf.

So that, if a philoſopher could delineate to us, diſtinctly and methodically all the operations of the thinking principle within him, which no man was ever able to do, this would be only the anatomy of one particular ſubject; which would be both deficient and erroneous, if applied to human nature in general: For a little reflection may ſatisfy us, that the difference of minds is greater than that of any other beings, which we conſider as of the ſame ſpecies.

Of the various powers and faculties we poſſeſs, there are ſome which nature ſeems both to have planted and reared, ſo as to have left nothing to human induſtry. Such are the powers which we have in common with the brutes, and which are neceſſary to the preſervation of the individual, or the continuance of the kind. There are other powers of which nature hath only planted the ſeeds in our minds, but hath left the rearing of them to human culture. It is by the proper culture of theſe, that we are capable of all thoſe improvements in intellectuals, in taſte, and in morals, which exalt and dignify human nature: while, on the other hand, the neglect or per-

perverſion of them makes its degeneracy and corruption.

The two-legged animal that eats of nature's dainties what his taſte or appetite craves, and ſatisfies his thirſt at the cryſtal fountain; who propagates his kind as occaſion and luſt prompt, repels injuries, and takes alternate labour and repoſe; is, like a tree in the foreſt, purely of nature's growth. But this ſame ſavage hath within him the ſeeds of the logician, the man of taſte and breeding, the orator, the ſtateſman, the man of virtue, and the ſaint; which ſeeds, though planted in his mind by nature, yet, through want of culture and exerciſe, muſt lie for ever buried, and be hardly perceivable by himſelf or others.

The loweſt degree of ſocial life will bring to light ſome of thoſe principles which lay hid in the ſavage ſtate; and, according to his training, and company, and manner of life, ſome of them, either by their native vigour, or by the force of culture, will thrive and grow up to great perfection; others will be ſtrangely perverted from their natural form, and others checked, or perhaps quite eradicated.

This makes human nature ſo various and multiform in the individuals that partake of it, that, in point of morals and intellectual endowments, it fills up all that gap which we conceive to be between brutes and devils below, and the celeſtial orders above; and ſuch a prodigious diverſity of minds muſt make it extremely difficult to diſcover the common principles of the ſpecies.

The language of philoſophers, with regard to the original faculties of the mind, is ſo adapted to the prevailing ſyſtem, that it cannot fit any other; like a coat that fits the man for whom it was made, and ſhews him to advantage, which yet will ſit very awkward upon one of a different make, although perhaps as handſome and as well proportioned. It is hardly poſſible to make any innovation in our philoſophy concerning the mind and its operations, without uſing new words and phraſes, or giving a different meaning to thoſe that are received; a liberty which, even when neceſſary, creates prejudice and miſconſtruction, and which muſt wait the ſanction of time to authoriſe it. For innovations in language, like thoſe in religion and government, are always ſuſpected and diſliked by the many, till uſe hath made them familiar, and preſcription hath given them a title.

If the original perceptions and notions of the mind were to make their appearance ſingle and unmixed, as we firſt received them from the hand of nature, one accuſtomed to reflection would have leſs difficulty in tracing them; but, before we are capable of reflection, they are ſo mixed, compounded, and decompounded, by habits, aſſociations, and abſtractions, that it is hard to know what they were originally. The mind may in this reſpect be compared to an apothecary or chymiſt; whoſe materials indeed are furniſhed by nature; but for the purpoſes of his art, he mixes, compounds, diſſolves, evaporates, and ſublimes them, till they put on a quite different appearance; ſo that it were very difficult to know what they were at firſt, and much more

more to bring them back to their original and natural form. And this work of the mind is not carried on by deliberate acts of mature reason, which we might recollect, but by means of inſtincts, habits, aſſociations, and other principles, which operate before we come to the uſe of reaſon; ſo that it is extremely difficult for the mind to return upon its own footſteps, and trace back thoſe operations which have employed it, ſince it firſt began to think and to act.

Could we obtain a diſtinct and full hiſtory of all that hath paſſed in the mind of a child from the beginning of life and ſenſation, till it grows up to the uſe of reaſon; how its infant faculties began to work, and how they brought forth and ripened all the various notions, opinions, and ſentiments, which we find in ourſelves when we come to be capable of reflection; this would be a treaſure of natural hiſtory, which would probably give more light into the human faculties, than all the ſyſtems of philoſophers about them ſince the beginning of the world. But it is in vain to wiſh for what nature has not put within the reach of our power. Reflection, the only inſtrument by which we can diſcern the powers of the mind, comes too late to obſerve the progreſs of nature in raiſing them from their infancy to perfection.

It muſt therefore require great caution, and great application of mind, for a man, that is grown up in all the prejudices of education, faſhion, and philoſophy, to unravel his notions and opinions, till he finds out the ſimple and original principles of his conſtitution, of which no account can be given but the will of our Maker. This may be truly called an analyſis of the human faculties; and, till this is performed, it is in vain we expect any juſt ſyſtem of the mind; that is, an enumeration of the original powers and laws of our conſtitution, and an explication from them of the various phænomena of human nature.

Succeſs, in an inquiry of this kind, is not in human power to command; but perhaps it is poſſible, by caution and humility, to avoid error and deluſion. The labyrinth may be too intricate, and the thread too fine, to be traced through all its windings; but, if we ſtop where we can trace it no farther, and ſecure the ground we have gained, there is no harm done; a quicker eye may in time trace it farther.

It is genius, and not the want of it, that adulterates philoſophy, and fills it with error and falſe theory. A creative imagination diſdains the mean offices of digging for a foundation, of removing rubbiſh, and carrying materials: Leaving theſe ſervile employments to the drudges in ſcience, it plans a deſign, and raiſes a fabric. Invention ſupplies materials where they are wanting, and fancy adds colouring, and every befitting ornament. The work pleaſes the eye, and wants nothing but ſolidity and a good foundation. It ſeems even to vie with the works of nature, till the envious blaſt of ſome ſucceeding architect blows it into rubbiſh, and builds as goodly a fabric of his own in its

place. Happily for the present age, the castle-builders employ themselves more in romance than in philosophy. That is undoubtedly their province, and in those regions the offspring of fancy is legitimate, but in philosophy it is all spurious.

Thoughts on Self-preservation, in regard to Suicide.

THE law of self-preservation is one of the principal laws of nature: It is to other laws what existence is to other qualities; existence ceasing, all other qualities cease; the law of self-preservation being infringed, the foundation of other laws is shaken. To destroy one's self, in any manner whatever, is to be guilty of suicide. We must exist as long as possible for ourselves, for our friends, for our parents, for society, for mankind; all the relations that are honest and agreeable in these respects, belong to and suit us.

He who transgresses against the law of self-preservation, treads them under foot, and behaves as if he should say to those about him: 'I renounce being any longer your father, your brother, your husband, your friend, your son, your fellow-citizen, your like.' We have freely contracted some of those relations; therefore it does not depend on us to dissolve them without injustice. It is a compact into which we have been neither forced nor surprised; therefore, as we cannot break it of our own authority, we require the consent of those with whom we have contracted. The conditions of this treaty are become burdensome to us, but nothing hindered our foreseeing them; they might become so to others and to society; but in this case we would not have been forsaken. Let us grant then, that no one morally on the surface of the earth is so useless and destitute, as to depart without taking leave of any but himself. The injustice of such a proceeding will be more or less great; but it will still be an injustice. You must therefore be careful that all your actions tend to the preservation of yourself and of others; this is the voice of nature that calls on us perpetually. Remember, there is no choice to be made between existence and virtue.

Reflections on different subjects of Morality, by Stanislaus, King of Poland, Duke of Lorrain and Bar.

These reflections are many of them valuable for their solidity and good sense; they are all so from the goodness of heart, which seems to have given rise to them. They are not always the reflections of a profound observer, but, in every particular, the sentiments of a good man. The same may be said of the piece immediately following, by the same hand.

WHEN truth offends no one, it ought to pass out of the mouth as naturally as the air we breathe.

If with the pains we endure here below we were immortal, we should be the most miserable of all beings. It is sweet and pleasing to hope that we shall not live always.

It seems that all we do is but a rough draught, and that always something remains to be done to make the work complete.

Power

Power is not always proportionate to the will. One should be consulted before the other; but the generality of men begin by willing, and act afterwards as they can.

Affectation discovers sooner what one is, than it makes known what one would fain appear to be.

Laziness is a premature death. To be in no action is not to live.

Great wants proceed from great wealth, and make riches almost equal to poverty.

We feel death but once; he who fears death, dies every time he thinks of it.

A miser of sixty years old refuses himself necessaries, that he might not want them when he is a hundred. Almost all of us make ourselves unhappy by too much forecast.

Nature does not accustom us to suffer from our infancy, but in order to teach us to suffer.

It is happy for human nature, that there are desires which cannot be satisfied. Otherwise the most sorry man would make himself master of the world.

He that keeps his promise only to his own advantage, is scarce more bound than if he had promised nothing. Every promise of interest vanishes, as soon as the interest ceases.

I esteem greatly the ignorance of a man who believes and confesses his knowledge to be confined to what he knows.

None are rash, when they are not seen by any body.

Man is only weak by the disproportion there is between what he can and what he is willing to do. The only way he has to increase his strength, is to retrench many of his desires.

Interested benefits are so common, that we need not be astonished if ingratitude is not so rare.

We only hate the wicked through interest. If they did us no injury, we should look upon them with indifference.

The people most attached to life are almost always those, who know least how to enjoy it.

The misfortune of the most learned is not to know, that they are ignorant of what they cannot know.

In the clashing of opinions, the most simple wants only, for uniting minds, to be proposed last.

Too much devotion leads to fanaticism; too much philosophy to irreligion.

The care we take not to suffer, causes more torment than we should find in supporting what we suffer.

We meet with great difficulty in conquering pride by resisting it: How potent then must it be, when flattered?

True merit desires to be honoured, as it honours itself.

As we cannot hinder young people from being inconsiderate, we should remember that they have but a short time to be so.

The generality of misers are very good people; they do not cease to amass wealth for others that wish their death.

Life is enjoyed only by bits and scraps: Every instant terminates its extent: When it exists, the past is no more, and the insta t that follows is not yet. In this manner, we die without ever having been able to enjoy one instant.

We live too little for the long time we are to remain dead.

After death, there remains no regret for life. The moſt melancholy of deaths is that of youth, which is for a long time regretted.

The hypocrite who would fain imitate virtue, can only copy it in water colours.

It is having in ſome meaſure a ſort of wit to know how to uſe the wit of others.

The indolence of the generality of the great borders ſomewhat upon a lethargic ſtate.

I doubt whether a wife and ſenſible man would become young again on the ſame conditions he was once ſo.

The prejudices of youth paſs away with it. Thoſe of old age laſt only, becauſe there is no other age to be hoped for.

The reaſon why ſome people ſpeak ſo much is, that they ſpeak only by memory.

We muſt not be aſtoniſhed that we have ſo ſtrong an inclination to idleneſs: It is the natural ſtate of man, labour being a puniſhment to him.

The poor, condemned to the ſweat of their brow and to fatigue, upbraid nature with the ſloth of the rich; and the rich, tormented by paſſions, or devoured by diſguſt and irkſomeneſs, envy the innocent pleaſures of the poor. None here below find themſelves happy but in the place of others.

True religion has never perhaps ſuffered ſo much from the violence of its perſecutors, as from the folly and inſincerity of thoſe who repreſent it as as a frightful phantom by its rigours.

It is rare that love is not fooliſh in a fooliſh mind; it may be wiſe in a well formed heart.

The firſt ſighs of fooliſh love are the laſt of wiſdom.

How many prodigals are there, who, by dying, pay only nature what they owe her!

We mount to fortune by ſeveral ſteps; but require only one ſtep to come down from fortune.

What a vacuity muſt there be in a mind, which deſigns to be filled with evidence!

There are authors that take ſo much pains with, and poliſh ſo much, their writings, that all they give to the public are nothing but mere duſt and filings.

The firſt faults alarm innocence; thoſe that follow ceaſe to fright her. Happy that innocence which has not learned to fear, or has held to her firſt fears.

I know no real worth but that tranquil firmneſs which ſeeks dangers by duty, and braves them without raſhneſs.

I pity leſs an ignorant perſon who knows nothing, than one who knows but indifferently what he has learned. It is much better to know thoroughly, than to know a great deal.

The man of underſtanding reaſons only according to what he has learned; but the man of genius according to himſelf.

It does not ſuit all perſons to be modeſt: None but great men ought to be ſo.

The merit of great men is not underſtood but by thoſe who are formed to be ſuch themſelves; genius ſpeaks only to genius.

Great men are in vain criticized, their illuſtrious qualities are ſufficient to procure them revenge.

Great ſpeakers reſemble thoſe muſicians, who, in their airs, prefer noiſe to harmony.

We may recover out of the darkneſs of ignorance, but never out of that of preſumption.

We have known how to make the elements obſequious to our ingenuity, but we know not how to maſter our paſſions.

True valour braves danger without neglecting reſources.

Two ſorts of men do not reflect, the terrified and the raſh man.

The true courage of the hero is to forget the rank he has attained by his courage.

Riches would be little eſteemed, if they did not furniſh vanity with the pleaſure of having what others have not.

Though juſtice is not ſold, it coſts a great deal, and one muſt be very rich to obtain it.

We are in the wrong to confound taſtes with paſſions. Taſtes are leſs quick, and paſs away; paſſions are more impetuous and durable.

Let us ſeek after our enemies in thoſe with whom we live; others, with whom we have no acquaintance, do not think of doing us harm.

To hurt with more certainty, we impute to thoſe we do not love, either an exceſs of virtue, or faults that come neareſt to the virtues that conſtitute their merit.

To ſpeak evil of a woman's rivals is a ſure way of praiſing her. How many men are women in this reſpect!

Jealouſy would fain paſs for an exceſs of love; but it terrifies in in ſaying that it loves.

To be in a paſſion is to puniſh one's ſelf for the faults and impertinences of another.

Death is always an aſſured aſylum againſt the labours and troubles of this world. A pilot, ſure of entering the port, is in no dread of tempeſts.

I would be glad to know why the oddeſt taſtes are always attended with the quickeſt ſenſations.

The word of God proves the truth of religion; the corruption of man, its neceſſity; government, its advantages.

Nothing but religion is capable of changing pains into pleaſures.

If we had a fore-feeling of the trouble of correcting ourſelves, we ſhould have none in keeping ourſelves free from faults.

In order to be applauded for what we do, we muſt not too much applaud ourſelves.

Long ailments wear out pain; and long hopes, joy.

Thoſe that ought to be ſecure from calumny, are generally thoſe that avoid it leaſt.

We wiſh no evil to thoſe we deſpiſe; but to thoſe who have a right to deſpiſe us.

We ought to be more offended at extravagant praiſe, than injuries.

How can we love a life that leads conſtantly to death, and by ways always beſet with thorns?

Good humour is the health of the ſoul, ſadneſs its poiſon.

Reaſon ſhews us our duty; he who can make us love our duty, is more powerful than reaſon itſelf.

An implacable hatred is a greater burthen that we uſually think it is.

I believe indeed that it is more laudable to ſuffer great misfortunes, than to do great things.

Praiſes are ſatire, when inſincere.

Almoſt always the moſt indigent are the moſt generous.

The ties of friendſhip are at preſent ſo ſlight, that they break of themſelves: They only draw hearts near each other, but do not unite them.

A hard and poliſhed piece of marble reflects the objects that are preſented before it. The ſame may be ſaid of moſt men. The troubles of another ſkim over the ſurface of their ſoul, but go no farther.

A man, greater than his misfortunes, ſhews that he was not deſerving of them.

The courage, which emulation inſpires for an enterpriſe, ſoon finds the means of ſucceeding.

To ceaſe hearing a babler is the ſureſt way to make him hold his tongue.

The deſire of pleaſing is not laudable but ſo far, as we endeavour at the ſame time to make ourſelves eſteemed.

To live in quiet, we ſhould undertake nothing difficult but preſumption makes all things to be thought eaſy.

The inſtability of our taſtes is the occaſion of the irregularity of our lives.

No other princes, commonly, but thoſe who are deſerving of immortality, love to encourage the talents that give a right to it.

Religion has nothing more to fear, than not being ſufficiently underſtood.

Muſt one ceaſe to be virtuous to eſcape being expoſed to the darts of envy? What a calamity would it be, if the ſun ceaſed ſhining that weak eyes might not be offended?

The older love grows, the weaker it is. Friendſhip is ſtronger in becoming old.

Nature cries aloud to the moſt powerful as well as to the moſt abject of men, that they are all members of the ſame body.

If we perceive at preſent little genius, it is becauſe the arts have few inventors in an age where there are ſo many models.

The moſt infallible mark of ignorance is ſuperſtition.

Which of us would take notice of time, if it did not paſs away? But great is our miſhap not to think of it till the moment it flies away and eſcapes us!

Science, when well digeſted, is nothing but good ſenſe and reaſon.

There are few perſons of greater worth than their reputation; but how many are there whoſe worth is far ſhort of their reputation?

However great a happineſs is, there is one ſtill greater; which is that of being eſteemed worthy of the happineſs that is enjoyed.

We ought to reckon time by our good actions, and place the reſt to the account of our not having lived.

Though hope often deceives us, we have ſtill the ſame confidence, and our life paſſes away in hoping.

All nature acts for growing, and all growth for its deſtruction.

The virtue that excites envy has at leaſt the advantage of confounding ſooner or later the envious.

Modeſty is always inſeparable from true merit.

The beſt way for ſome to conſole themſelves for their ignorance, is to believe uſeleſs all that they do not know.

Can princes, born in palaces, be ſenſible of the miſery of thoſe, that dwell in cottages?

Patriotiſm is nothing more than the ſentiment of our welfare, and the dread of ſeeing it diſturbed.

Every thing, even piety, is dan-

dangerous in a man without judgment.

Reaſon has occaſion for experience; but experience is uſeleſs without reaſon.

Conſcience admoniſhes us as a friend, before puniſhing us as a judge.

To believe with certainty, we muſt begin with doubting.

I would be glad that there was a leſs diſtance between the people and the great. The people then, not believing the great to be greater than they are, would fear them leſs; and the great, not imagining the people more inſignificant and miſerable than they are, would fear them more.

If beauty knew all the advantages of the modeſty that heightens its charms, it would not conſtantly expoſe it to ſo many dangers.

Why fly from the unhappy? Their ſtate makes us more ſenſible of the value of the happineſs we poſſeſs.

To ſuppoſe courage in a coward, is to inſpire him with courage in effect.

To make the principle of our conduct conſiſt in the neceſſity of duty is to make it very hard and painful, and to expoſe ourſelves conſtantly to the deſire of breaking through it.

How many people make every thing their buſineſs, becauſe they know not how to occupy themſelves in any thing?

Experience, acquired by faults, is a very coſtly maſter.

We are fond of converſing with thoſe we love, why therefore cannot man, who loves himſelf ſo well, remain a moment with himſelf?

Is it not aſtoniſhing that the love of repoſe keeps us in continual agitation?

The advice given to princes is uſually of ſervice to thoſe only who give it.

Men and women, in marrying, make a vow of loving one another. Would it not be better for their happineſs if they made a vow of pleaſing each other?

As ſoon as in converſation we have perceived the reſult of the mind of thoſe with whom we ſpeak, we ſhould ſtop there. All that is ſaid further, being no longer comprehended, might paſs for ridiculous.

What makes ſo many perſons go aſtray in their arguments is, that they would fain think beyond the extent of their intellects.

The deſire of doing well is debaſed by the deſire of appearing to have done well.

It is rare that coxcombs have not at firſt the aſcendant in every aſſembly. It is the mud that riſes on the ſurface of the water, till, the agitation ceaſing, it precipitates of itſelf.

There is no where ſo much occaſion for good humour as in courts, and yet there we find leaſt of it.

It is hardly poſſible to ſuſpect another, without having in one's ſelf the ſeeds of the baſeneſs the party is accuſed of.

Eſteem has more engaging charms than friendſhip, and even love. It captivates hearts better, and never makes ingrates.

Vanity is leſs inſupportable than affected modeſty.

I eſteem an honeſt man, who is ſenſible in regard to glory; I eſteem him no longer when he is captivated with vanity.

There are few friends but admit of advice, but ſcarce any can abide cenſure.

By ſhewing too much dread of being deceived, we often diſcover the manner whereby we may be deceived.

We uſually take a confident to have an approver.

The earneſt deſire of ſucceeding is almoſt always a prognoſtic of ſucceſs.

Whoever places importance in little things is ſubject to treat ſlightly the moſt eſſential.

Many miſers prefer, to the ſhame of appearing ſuch, the puniſhment of being profuſe.

A covetous perſon is ſeldom cured of the paſſion for gaming. Beſides the hopes of gain, he finds in it the advantage of hiding his avarice under an air of diſintereſtedneſs.

We are uſually miſtaken in eſteeming men too much; rarely in eſteeming them too little.

Dialogue between a King and his Favourite, on the apparent happineſs of human conditions.—By Staniſlaus, King of Poland, Duke of Lorrain and Bar.

King. FOR ſome time paſt I perceived in you a gloomineſs which does not ſuit your happy ſituation. I have raiſed you to the higheſt degree of grandeur you could attain to, I have heaped the gifts of fortune on you, and you enjoy a ſtate of life which cannot fail of being very agreeable, as by it you are ſubject to no duty which can be a trouble to you.

Favourite. What you do me the honour to tell me is very true. All my acquaintance think the ſame; every one believes me happy; and nothing ſeems wanting to me but to be perſuaded of it myſelf. The degree of elevation I have arrived at, has been conſtantly the object of my deſires: But it is now almoſt inſupportable to me. Some ſee nothing but haughtineſs and diſdain in my looks; others perceive only in my fortune a lucky ſingularity of your favour. All, not excepting my old friends, affect for me an indifference, which is more tormenting to me, than jealouſy is to themſelves, which conſumes them, and which they are afraid to diſcover. The immenſe ſtores of wealth you have ſhowered down upon me, have not been hitherto able to ſatiate my avidity, and I regret laying them out on ſuperfluities, which my ſtation creates as wants to me; I find, indeed, that nothing can make amends for the loſs ſuſtained by vain oſtentation, and that a man is always puniſhed for his vanity. You have not impoſed any painful duty on me; but the public infer from thence that I am good for nothing, and incapable of rendering you any ſervice. Thoſe, who want ſome favour, flatter me; and thoſe who require none, conſider me as a bold intruder, that pretends to uſurp your power and to govern you. The faults, which it is fancied you commit, are imputed to me; I am the ſole object of all diſcontent; in not ſparing me, you are thought to undergo correction. In ſhort, by ſtudying to ſecure the permanency of your favour, I am commonly forced to lay a reſtraint upon myſelf, intirely attentive to pleaſe you, and always reduced to the neceſſity of

of being quite regardleſs of others.

This is my condition. Judge if you have ſucceeded in making me perfectly happy. You will alſo allow, that, to be happy, I ſhould be certain of being ſo conſtantly; and who will warrant me that the enemies, my credit have brought upon me, may not have themſelves hereafter enough to deprive me of it, and that you yourſelf may think you have done a juſt and laudable action by ſacrificing me to their animoſity? To prevent this diſgrace, and to deliver you at the ſame time from the uneaſineſs my perſecutors give you, I believe ſometimes I cannot ſhew you a greater mark of gratitude than by withdrawing from your court; and ſometimes alſo, perſuaded that my retiring would paſs for the moſt ſignal ingratitude, I cannot reſolve upon deſerting you. Theſe two oppoſite ſentiments diſtract me, and this is the cauſe of the gloom you have noticed in me. My reaſon fluctuates between two extremities equally rational, the love that attaches me to your perſon, and the obſtacles which do not permit me to love you in tranquillity.

King. In the picture you have drawn for me of your ſentiments, I ſee a pretty faithful image of what I experience myſelf: though your condition and mine do not place us upon an equality, we yet reſemble each other. I am a man, and conſequently ſubject to all the paſſions common to human nature. You are ambitious, and ſo am I; but my ambition, wound up to the higheſt pitch, has not ſuch engaging charms for me as yours may have for you. To enjoy with more ſatisfaction the honours which are due to me, I would fain perſuade myſelf that they are rendered to my merit, rather than to my high rank, and that thoſe points of homage are more addreſſed to my perſon than to my dignity. It is true, that, in order to raiſe myſelf even above the throne which I occupy, I have always endeavoured to raiſe for myſelf a reputation which, by its ſolidity rather than ſplendor, might be capable of ſatisfying the whole extent of my ambition; but, in deſpite of all my cares, I am ſtill daily expoſed to the cenſure of the public, who, having continually their eyes fixed on me, judge of my actions according to their caprice. How many are there who believe they cannot ſhew themſelves good citizens but by cenſuring the government under which they live; nor good politicians, but by ſtraining hard to fathom the myſteries of cabinets? And now what has been the ſucceſs of my ambition? More ſatisfactory than that of private perſons, it is notwithſtanding circumſcribed by bounds as well as theirs: Nay, every thing in kings betrays all the ſymptoms of the weakneſs of human nature.

As to riches, their abundance makes them leſs precious to me than they are to private perſons; ſatiety ſpoils their reliſh: beſides, having no trouble in acquiring them, I am not attached to them ſo, as that they may contribute to my happineſs. I could wiſh that all my riches conſiſted only in the pleaſure of ſeeing none poor throughout my kingdom.

In reſpect to the duties which I have diſpenſed you from, that you

you might enjoy in greater tranquillity all the ſweets of life, I could alſo wiſh thoſe incumbent on me were in the ſame condition; but herein I cannot have the ſame advantage as you.

The principal of my duties is employing uſefully all the moments of my life; I ſpeak of thoſe which I ought to conſecrate to the good of the ſtate. It often happens that the loſs of one of thoſe moments cannot be repaired in the whole courſe of an age. My ruling paſſion, and that which contributes moſt to my happineſs, is to make, if poſſible, all my ſubjects happy; but it is a torment to me to endeavour to content the taſtes, the caprices, and the too often unreaſonable pretenſions of thoſe who aſpire to my favours. Experience has ſufficiently convinced me, how difficult it is, not not to ſay impoſſible, to ſatisfy all thoſe who believe they ought to partake of them. In diſtributing them, I give the preference to the deſerving; but where is the perſon that does not believe but he deſerves them? It is ſufficient that he has ſo good an opinion of himſelf as to conceive diſcontent at the good I have done, and he believes this good miſplaced. Thus what does not ſatisfy one man becomes an injury to many, and hence may be derived that coldneſs in ſerving me; every function becomes then burthenſome and painful; zeal is only byaſſed by intereſt, and each perſon, reputing me the author of his troubles, cannot imagine the deſire I have for ſatisfying him, if his deſires were compatible with the public good. Can I then depend upon the love of all my ſubjects!

Can I even flatter myſelf with the attachment of thoſe on whom I heaped many favours? They enjoy among themſelves the ſweets of a ſociety, the charms of which are enhanced by harmony and friendſhip; and what friends can I have but thoſe which intereſt procures for me?

What ſhall I ſay of the other duties annexed to my crown? In the exerciſe of juſtice, it is as dangerous for me to diſſemble, as it is diſagreeable to puniſh; yet my clemency paſſes often for weakneſs, and my fixed reſolution for cruelty. In military affairs, I forget nothing for maintaining the glory and intereſt of the nation; but, if I am for making and retaining conqueſts, I am deemed ambitious, and an uſurper; if I ſeek for peace, I am thought incapable of uſing my power. In civil affairs, howſoever exact the meaſures I have taken may be, they will be ſaid to be ill concerted, if not attended with ſucceſs; and if, in the exerciſe of my legiſlative capacity, I procure the abrogating of ancient laws formerly uſeful, at preſent inconvenient, and in their room have new ones enacted, this change will be conſidered as a ſtretch of prerogative, or tendency to deſpotiſm. In the finances, I may be accuſed of mal-adminiſtration, and yet I am ſenſible of the great hardſhips my people ſuffer by contributing to the neceſſities of the ſtate. It is with regret that I impoſe taxes on them; I fancy that I wreſt violently from myſelf what I aſk of them, and I feel, with the moſt acute ſenſibility, what a melancholy thing it is to ſee one's ſelf the father of a family in diſtreſs.

I am

I am not unacquainted with the artful turns and cunning that have been introduced into politics, but herein I have been entirely influenced by good faith, under the guidance of truth and juſtice. If my ſincerity, always the ſame, is not ſucceſsful, I am blamed for having made uſe of it; and what none can help deeming a virtue, is imputed to me as a crime. Add to this that, what ſome deteſted in my enemy notwithſtanding his ſucceſſes, they wiſh I had put in practice myſelf, even at the hazard of reaping no advantage from it. Now think, abiding by my maxims, how much it muſt have coſt me on certain occaſions, when, by reaſons of ſtate, I have ſeen myſelf obliged to retract my word?

I have laid open to you the inmoſt receſſes of my heart, and you ſee the candour of my intentions; but theſe candid intentions have been far from turning always to good account for me. Muſt it not be a vexation when juſtice is not done them, and an ill conſtruction is put upon my beſt manner of conducting myſelf for the good of my people? Yet this conſolation is left, that I have nothing to reproach myſelf with.

The ſame cannt be ſaid in regard to what I am going to tell you. By being a king I have not ceaſed to be a man, and I acknowledge in myſelf many faults. Sometimes my power and ſelf-love might have made me deviate from the paths of juſtice and reaſon; vain-glory might have made me undertake wars, without being ſufficiently ſenſible of their neceſſity, and without foreſeeing that, for ſome doubtful advantages, gained over my enemies, I expoſed my people to the danger of being ruined by inevitable expences. I might have, to ill purpoſes, ſquandered away the public treaſure, or at leaſt neglected to manage it with an exact œconomy. In council, inſtead of interrogating truth, and encouraging its anſwers, I might, bigotted to my own notions, have inflexibly maintained them. In ſociety, I might often, through complaiſance, have borne with faults worthy of reprehenſion; and, through the habit of receiving praiſes, I might have been too ſenſibly affected by them. It might alſo happen that I have been too unattentive to the conduct of my miniſters; that I have often ſuffered them to abuſe my authority; that, like them, I have been ſo weak as to think that to grow old in an employ was to acquire experience in it; and that, laſtly, the pleaſure of making perſons happy coſting me nothing, I have often granted to importunity what I ſhould have only conferred on merit.

Hence it is plain that, on the throne itſelf, where one is conſtantly expoſed to ſo many occaſions of being deficient in duty, no perfect happineſs can be taſted. When I do good, none have a due ſenſe of it; and, when I do evil, it is never pardoned in me.

Favourite. I have, Sir, the deepeſt ſenſe of the confidence you have juſt now placed in me. I confeſs that, among thoſe that ſurround you, ſeveral will always find ſome fault with your virtues, and ſeveral will be bold enough to applaud even your faults. It is the buſi-

buſineſs of your prudence to diſcern both, and of your wiſdom to deſpiſe all equally.

King. I would gladly follow this laſt advice, if, in placing myſelf above all cenſure, I could at the ſame time ſuppreſs the voice of my conſcience and reaſon. The whole of my condition charms me, the detail of it fills me with horror. Thus your ſtate and mine bear a reſemblance to one another, notwithſtanding their infinite diſtance. All men are made to fancy themſelves free, tho' in a real bondage, becauſe none in any ſtation of life can call themſelves perfectly happy. To be able, however, in ſome meaſure, to mitigate my lot, I have only one thing to wiſh for, which is, that as my ſubjects form with me the ſame body politic, there may be between us a kind of democratical and inſeparable union, in order to their having as much confidence in my government, as I have always had in their zeal and fidelity.

On Friendſhip and Pity.

WHEN we reflect on the manner in which mankind generally confer their favours, we ſhall find that they who ſeem to want them leaſt, are the very perſons who moſt liberally ſhare them. There is ſomething ſo attractive in riches, that the large heap generally collects from the ſmaller; and the poor find as much pleaſure in increaſing the enormous maſs, as the miſer who owns it ſees happineſs in its increaſe. Nor is there in this any thing repugnant to the laws of true morality. Seneca himſelf allows, that in conferring benefits, the preſent ſhould always be ſuited to the dignity of the receiver. Thus the rich receive large preſents, and are thanked for accepting them. Men of middling ſtations are obliged to be content with preſents ſomething leſs, while the beggar, who may be truly ſaid to want indeed, is well paid if a farthing rewards his warmeſt ſolicitations.

Every man who has ſeen the world, muſt know that to have much, or to ſeem to have it, is the only way to have more. Thus, when a man has no occaſion to borrow, he finds numbers willing to lend him. A certain young fellow at George's, whenever he had occaſion to aſk his friend for a guinea, uſed to prelude his requeſt as if he wanted two hundred, and talked ſo familiarly of large ſums, that none could ever think he wanted a ſmall one. The ſame gentleman, whenever he wanted credit for a new ſuit from his taylor, always made the propoſal in laced cloaths; for he found by experience, that if he appeared ſhabby on theſe occaſions, Mr. Lynch had taken an oath againſt truſting; or what was every bit as bad, his foreman was out of the way, and would not be at home theſe two days.

Pity and friendſhip are paſſions incompatible with each other, and it is impoſſible that both can reſide in any breaſt for the ſmalleſt ſpace, without impairing each other. Friendſhip is made up of eſteem and pleaſure; pity is compoſed of ſorrow and contempt; the mind may for ſome time fluctuate between them, but it can never entertain both together.

Yet let it not be thought that I would

would exclude pity from the human mind. There is ſcarce any who are not in ſome degree poſſeſſed of this pleaſing ſoftneſs; but it is at beſt but a ſhort-lived paſſion, and ſeldom affords diſtreſs more than tranſitory aſſiſtance: with ſome it ſcarce laſts from the firſt impulſe till the hand can be put into the pocket; with others it may continue for twice that ſpace; and on ſome of extraordinary ſenſibility, I have ſeen it operate for half an hour. In great diſtreſs we ſometimes, it is true, feel the influence of tenderneſs ſtrongly; when the ſame diſtreſs ſolicits a ſecond time, we then feel with diminiſhed ſenſibility, but like the repetition of an echo, every new impulſe becomes weaker, till at laſt our ſenſations loſe every mixture of ſorrow, and degenerate into downright contempt.

Jack Spindle and I were old acquaintance; but he's gone. Jack was bred in a compting-houſe, and his father dying juſt as he was out of his time, left him an handſome fortune, and many friends to adviſe with. The reſtraint in which he had been brought up, had thrown a gloom upon his temper, which ſome regarded as an habitual prudence, and from ſuch conſiderations, he had every day repeated offers of friendſhip. Thoſe who had money, were ready to offer him their aſſiſtance that way; and they who had daughters, frequently, in the warmth of affection, adviſed him to marry. Jack, however, was in good circumſtances; he wanted neither money, friends, nor a wife, and therefore modeſtly declined their propoſals.

Some errors in the management of his affairs, and ſeveral loſſes in trade, ſoon brought Jack to a different way of thinking; and he at laſt thought it his beſt way to let his friends know that their offers were at length acceptable. His firſt addreſs was therefore to a ſcrivener, who had formerly made him frequent offers of money and friendſhip.

Jack, therefore, thought he might uſe his old friend without any ceremony, and as a man confident of not being refuſed, requeſted the uſe of an hundred guineas for a few days, as he juſt then had an occaſion for money. 'And 'pray, Mr. Spindle, replied the 'ſcrivener, do you want all this 'money?' 'Want it! Sir, ſays 'the other, if I did not want it, 'I ſhould not have aſked it.' 'I 'am ſorry for that, ſays the friend; 'for thoſe who want money when 'they come to borrow, will want 'money when they ſhould come 'to pay. To ſay the truth, Mr. 'Spindle, money is money now-'a-days. I believe it is all ſunk 'in the bottom of the ſea, for my 'part; and he that has got a little 'is a fool if he does not keep 'what he has got.'

Not quite diſconcerted by this refuſal, our adventurer was reſolved to apply to another, whom he knew to be the very beſt friend he had in the world. The gentleman whom he now addreſſed, received his propoſal with all the affability that could be expected from generous friendſhip. 'Let 'me ſee, you want an hundred 'guineas; and pray, dear Jack, 'would not fifty anſwer?' 'If 'you have but fifty to ſpare, Sir, 'I muſt be contented.' 'Fifty to 'ſpare!

'ſpare, I do not ſay that, for I 'believe I have but twenty about 'me.' 'Then I muſt borrow the 'other thirty from ſome other 'friend.' 'And pray, replied 'the friend, would it not be the 'beſt way to borrow the whole 'money from that other friend, 'and then one note would ſerve 'for all, you know. Lord, Mr. 'Spindle, make no ceremony with 'me at any time; you know I am 'your friend, and when you chuſe 'a bit of dinner or ſo—You, Tom, 'ſee the gentleman down. You 'won't forget to dine with us now 'and then. Your very humble ſer-'vant.'

Diſtreſſed, but not diſcouraged at this treatment, he was at laſt reſolved to find that aſſiſtance from love, which he could not have from friendſhip. Miſs Jenny Diſmal had a fortune in her own hands, and ſhe had already made all the advances that her ſex's modeſty would permit. He made his propoſal therefore with confidence, but ſoon perceived, *no bankrupt ever found the fair one kind.* Miſs Jenny and maſter Billy Galloon were lately fallen deeply in love with each other, and the whole neighbourhood thought it would ſoon be a match.

Every day now began to ſtrip Jack of his former finery; his cloaths flew piece by piece to the pawn-broker's, and he ſeemed at length equipped in the genuine mourning of antiquity. But ſtill he thought himſelf ſecure from ſtarving, the numberleſs invitations he had received to dine, even after his loſſes, were yet unanſwered; he was therefore now reſolved to accept of a dinner becauſe he wanted one; and in this manner he actually lived among his friends a whole week without being openly affronted. The laſt place I ſaw poor Jack was at the Rev. Dr. Goſling's. He had, as he fancied, juſt nicked the time, for he came in as the cloth was laying. He took a chair without being deſired, and talked for ſome time without being attended to. He aſſured the company, that nothing procured ſo good an appetite, as a walk to White Conduit-houſe, where he had been that morning. He looked at the table cloth, and praiſed the figure of the damaſk; talked of a feaſt where he had been the day before, but that the veniſon was over done. All this, however, procured the poor creature no invitation, and he was not yet ſufficiently hardened to ſtay without being aſked; wherefore, finding the gentleman of the houſe inſenſible to all his fetches, he thought proper, at laſt, to retire, and mend his appetite by a walk in the park.

You then, O ye beggars of my acquaintance, whether in rags or lace; whether in Kent-ſtreet or the Mall; whether at the Smyrna or St. Giles's; might I adviſe as a friend, never ſeem in want of the favour which you ſolicit. Apply to every paſſion, but pity, for redreſs. You may find relief from vanity, from ſelf-intereſt, or even from avarice, but ſeldom from compaſſion. The very eloquence of a poor man is diſguſting. If then you would ward off the gripe of poverty, pretend to be a ſtranger to her, and ſhe will at leaſt uſe you with ceremony. Hear not my advice, but that of Offellus. If

you be caught dining upon a half-penny porringer of peaſe-ſoup and potatoes, praiſe the wholeſomeneſs of your frugal repaſt. You may obſerve, that Dr. Cheyne has preſcribed peaſe-broth for the gravel; hint that you are not one of thoſe who are always making a god of their belly. If you are obliged to wear a flimſy ſtuff in the middle of winter, be the firſt to remark that ſtuffs are much worn at Paris. If there be found ſome irreparable defects in any part of your equipage, which cannot be concealed by all the arts of ſitting croſs-legged, coaxing, or derning, ſay, that neither you nor Samſon Gideon were ever very fond of dreſs. Or if you be a philoſopher, hint that Plato or Seneca are the taylors you chuſe to employ; aſſure the company that men ought to be content with a bare covering, ſince what now is ſo much the pride of ſome, was formerly our ſhame. Horace will give you a Latin ſentence fit for the occaſion;

Toga defendere frigus quamvis craſſa queat.

In ſhort, however caught, do not give up, but aſcribe to the frugality of your diſpoſition, what others might be apt to attribute to the narrowneſs of your circumſtances, and appear rather to be a miſer than a beggar. To be poor, and to ſeem poor, is a certain method never to riſe. Pride in the great is hateful, in the wiſe it is ridiculous; beggarly pride is the only ſort of vanity I can excuſe.

Traveller, N° V.

Reflections on the influence of language on opinions and of opinions on language. Extracted from a diſſertation on that ſubject, by M. Michaelis, preſident of the royal ſociety of Gottingen.

IT is eaſily to be perceived, that in every country the populace have had the principal influence in the formation of languages; becauſe the ideas entertained in this reſpect by the majority of a people, will always take the lead, and influence the reſt. Hence it will follow, that in proportion as the people of any nation grow learned and polite, their language will be improved and embelliſhed. Of this Mr. Michaelis gives us ſeveral inſtances. Thus, according to our author, Θεὸς, the Greek term for the divinity, takes its riſe from a word which ſignifies *to run*; becauſe the ſtars were worſhipped as deities by the idolatrous people who firſt formed that language. Thus alſo the Latin term for the Deity hath generally a plural ſenſe, on account of the prevailing notions of polytheiſm among the ancient Romans. Nay, it is certain, that neither the Greeks nor the Latins had any word expreſſive of that idea which we form of one ſupreme, perfect, independent being, who created the univerſe. Again, the Hebrew term generally uſed by the Jews to expreſs the *leproſy*, literally ſignifies *to be ſcourged with a rod*. Now, in the eaſtern countries this diſeaſe was peculiarly looked upon as an immediate puniſhment inflicted by God; and hence that name was given to it. The Greeks made uſe of the ſame word to ſignify

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the *ſoul*, as they uſed for a butterfly; evidently becauſe a butterfly is only a caterpillar that changes its form without dying, and bears therein a ſimilitude to the ſoul, which continues to exiſt in its new ſtate after the diſſolution of the body. It was for this reaſon that the Greeks firſt repreſented the ſoul hieroglyphically under the form of a butterfly, and afterwards proceeded to give it the very name of that inſect.

Under the ſecond hand, our author inſtances, as an uſeful effect of this intimate connection between languages and opinions, the uncommon energy of ſome etymologies, from which the nature of the objects ſpoken of, is inſtantaneouſly and ſtrikingly perceived. Thus, for example, Δόξα, the Greek term for *glory* and *honour*, ſignifies literally *opinion*, and is expreſſive, without equivocation, of the good opinion entertained of us by others. It was very far, therefore, from ridiculous pedantry in the ancients, to apply themſelves with ſuch great aſſiduity to the purity and perfection of their language; an object equally worthy the attention and application of the moderns; as by ſuch means they may do infinite ſervice to the cauſe of literature, not only with regard to the preciſion of language, but to the perpetuating of the diſcoveries in the ſciences. Thus it will be impoſſible, for inſtance, ſo long as the German language ſubſiſts, for poſterity to forget the uſe of the *Quinquina*; as in that tongue it is called *Fieberrinde*, or the *Feverbark*. Another great advantage which is to be deduced from etymological preciſion, is, that it ſerves to preſerve the original notions of things which time hath diverſified. Thus the definitions uſually given of *marriage* are imperfect, in that they do not convey a preciſe diſtinction between the ſtate of matrimony and concubinage. But if we conſult the Greek, we ſhall find the word Νόμος, uſed indiſcriminately both for *marriage* and *the law*; and hence we may diſcover, that to be married to any one originally ſignified to be united according to law. A farther inſtance of the advantageous influence of language on opinions, our author obſerves to be the effect which the names of things frequently have, to inſpire a love or hatred toward them, as they are repreſented thereby to be beneficial or hurtful. Thus, if, inſtead of calling the artificial method of communicating the ſmall-pox by the name of *inoculation*, it had been called, for example, the *Turkiſh ſmall-pox*, it would in all probability have met with much greater oppoſition than it hath done: whereas, on the other hand, if this ſalutary practice had been ſoftened by the appellation of the *preſervative of beauty*, it is equally probable that the fair ſex at leaſt would all declare themſelves openly in its favour, notwithſtanding the reflections of the moroſe and gloomy moraliſts, who decry it.

Languages have an advantageous influence on opinions, in their variety of terms to expreſs the ſeveral objects of our knowledge. The more copious any language is, the more eaſily will it take the impreſſions of ſcience. How uſeful, for inſtance, would it not be, if all plants and vegetables had French names in France, German

man names in Germany, and that the botaniſts ſhould call them by the ſame appellation as the people? The oriental languages were, in this reſpect, greatly ſuperior to ours. But our manner of teaching all the ſciences in Latin, prevents the modern languages from acquiring ſuch a degree of perfection: the ſeveral profeſſors of natural philoſophy in the univerſities of Europe, however, would do well to pay ſo much reſpect to their own country, as to give lectures in their vernacular tongue. It is certain, that the copiouſneſs of a language may ſerve to prevent an infinitude of popular errors, which the vulgar fall into from the barrenneſs of their native tongues.

A diſcourſe addreſſed to the Welches (i. e. French) by Anthony Vadee, brother to William.

From the Tales of William Vadee, lately publiſhed by M. De Voltaire.

O WELCHES! my countrymen! if you ſurpaſs the ancient Greeks and Romans, let it not however be ſaid of you, that like teſty and wayward babes, you bite the nipples of the nurſes that have fed you with inſtruction; abſtain from inſulting the maſters that taught you; be modeſt in your triumphs; conſider for a moment what you really are, and from whence you derive your origin.

You had the honour, it is true, to be conquered and enſlaved by Julius Cæſar, who condemned your whole parliament of Vannes to the gallows, ſold the reſt of the inhabitants like cattle, cut off the hands of the people of Quercy, and afterwards governed you with great clemency. You remained above five hundred years ſubject to the laws of the Roman empire. Your Druids, who treated you like ſlaves and beaſts, and burned you pioufly in oſier cages, loſt a conſiderable part of their credit and influence when you became the ſlaves of the Romans. You muſt, however, acknowledge, that you have always, more or leſs, borne certain characters of barbarity.

In the fifth century, you were made ſlaves by the Vandals, whom you call by the pompous and high-ſounding name of Burgundians, a very cleanly ſort of people, who, according to the report of Sidonius Apollinaris, anointed their hair with ſtrong butter. Theſe elegant victors made themſelves maſters of all that territory that lies between the city of Vienne, in Dauphiny, and the ſource of the Seine; and there ſubſiſts ſtill ſome remains, that diſcover the genius and manners of thoſe glorious times, ſince it is well known that to this very day the monks and canons have vaſſals and fiefs in that country. This honourable prerogative of humanity is ſtill a ſtanding teſtimony of your wiſdom.

One part of your country, which, in your barbarous jargon, you called Oc, was invaded by the Viſigoths, and another that you named Oui, was ſeized by a Sicambrian called Hildovic, or Clovis, whoſe forefathers had been expoſed at Triers to the fury of wild beaſts, by the emperor Con-

ſtantine. This Sicambrian, at the head of an handful of Franks, who iſſued forth from the marſhy borders of the Rhine, the Maine and the Maiſe, reduced you anew into a ſtate of ſervitude.

The glorious expeditions of this illuſtrious hero conſiſted in aſſaſſinating, in the moſt perfidious manner, three little kings who were his relations and friends. It was then that your country acquired the melodious name of Frankreik, ſince changed for that of France, and you looked upon yourſelves as the firſt nation in the univerſe, becauſe you carried the golden ſtandard of St. Denis.

A band of northern pirates landed upon your coaſts, ſome time after, to lay you under contribution, and took from you the province, ſince called Normandy. You were then divided and parcelled out into little nations, under different ſovereigns, of which every one had its own laws and its own peculiar jargon.

The half of your country belonged, ſoon after this, to the inhabitants of the iſland of Britain; twelve provinces were actually in their hands, when, as yet, you had neither Laon, nor Marſeilles, nor Dauphiny, nor Provence, nor Languedoc.

Notwithſtanding the miſeries of this ignominious condition, notwithſtanding this ſeries of defeats and affronts, your compilers, whom you dignify with the title of hiſtorians, call you often the firſt people in the univerſe. This epithet is neither obliging nor polite with reſpect to other nations. Add a little modeſty to your ſhining qualities, and temper your pretenſions with a ſmall portion of humility, and then the reſt of Europe will do you juſtice, and pronounce you ſupportable.

Thank your ſtars, that the factions of the Red Roſe and White Roſe delivered you out of the hands of the Engliſh; and particularly, that the civil wars in Germany hindered Charles the fifth from ſwallowing up your country, and making you a province of the empire.

You had a tranſitory moment of reputation and luſtre under the reign of Lewis the fourteenth, but do not let that tempt you to imagine that you are ſuperior to the ancient Greeks and Romans.

Remember, that during the ſpace of ſix hundred years, ſcarcely any mortal was found among you (except a few of your new druids) who could either read or write. Your extreme, and almoſt unparallelled, ignorance, rendered you an eaſy prey to the flamen, or high-prieſt of Rome, and his ghoſtly council, who governed you like children; and, from time to time, whipped you into obedience with the rod of ſuperſtition and tyranny. Your contracts of marriage (when you made any) were penned in barbarous Latin, by the clergy, ſo that you knew not the nature or extent of your obligations; and as ſoon as your wedlock was bleſſed with offspring, a tonſured pedant came from Rome, and proved to you, by the ſtrength of papal logic, that your wives were not your wives, but your couſins, in the ſeventh degree; that your marriage was a ſacrilege; that your children were baſtards, and that you yourſelves would

would be eternally damned, if you did not give, without hesitation or delay, the half of your substance to the apostolic see.

Your kings were not much better treated than yourselves. Nine of them, if I am not mistaken, were excommunicated by the servant of the servants of God with the fisherman's ring. This excommunication implied, and was constantly attended with, confiscation of goods, chattels, and tenements, so that your kings forfeited thereby all right to their crown, which the Roman fisherman disposed of to such of his friends as he liked best.

You will perhaps alledge, my dear Welches, thet the people of England, and the German emperors, were as insolently treated by the papal flamen as you have been; but this does not justify you. Besides, if the British nation was for a certain time tame, and stupid enough to submit to the yoke of the Roman druid, you must at least acknowledge, that it has had spirit enough to break it asunder, and to avenge itself of the ghostly tyrant. Do your best to imitate this laudable example.

You had formerly a king [Francis I.] who, though unsuccessful in all his expeditions, and disappointed in almost all his designs, was yet so lucky as to succeed in his laudable endeavours to have you taught to read and write. He also brought learned men from Italy, who taught you Greek; and artists, who instructed you in the arts of sculpture and painting. Nevertheless, an hundred years passed, before you had a good painter or a good sculptor. And as to those, who learned the Greek and Hebrew languages, you had them almost all burnt alive, because you suspected them of reading, in the original, certain ancient Jewish books, the perusal of which is looked upon, by your druids, as of dangerous consequence.

I am ready to grant, my dear Welches, that your country is the first country in the universe; it is however certain, that you do not possess the largest domain in the smallest of the four parts of the world; that Spain, Germany, Sweden, and Poland, surpass you in extent of territory; and that there are provinces in Russia, of which the kingdom of France would not make a fourth part.

I wish I could say that you were the first kingdom in the universe, with respect to the fertility of your soil. But pray consider the forty leagues of barren heath that lie in the neighbourhood of Bourdeaux; think of that part of the province of Champagne, that you have dignified with the appellation of Lousy, of those immense districts where the people live upon chesnuts, and of several provinces, where they have no other subsistence than oat-bread. Think of the order that prohibits the exportation of corn; an order founded on your poverty, and perhaps, in part, on that levity of character, which leads you often to sell in a hurry all that you have, when in three months time you will be obliged to buy it back again at a more exorbitant rate, like certain inhabitants of America, who sell their bed in the morning, forgetting that they will want it to lie upon at night.

First people of the univerſe, do you forget that you have in your kingdom of Frankreick two millions of inhabitants, who wear wooden ſhoes ſix months in the year, and, during the other ſix months, go barefoot.

Are you the firſt people in the world for commerce and navigation? Alas! are you the firſt people in the world for the order that reigns in your budget? I am aſſured, that the public money paſſes through fifty hands before it arrives at the royal treaſury, and that in its paſſage it is filtrated down to about a fifth of its original maſs.

You will alledge, perhaps, in anſwer to all this, that you ſucceed wonderfully in bringing to perfection your comic operas. I grant this; but to whom, prithee, is the honour due both of your comic and ſerious operas? Do not they come from Italy?

You have invented, 'tis true, ſome new modes, though at preſent you adopt (generally ſpeaking) thoſe of England. But, on the other hand, was it not a Genoeſe who diſcovered that fourth part of the world, in which your poſſeſſions are reduced to two or three iſlands? Was it not a Portugueſe, who ſhewed you the way to the Eaſt-Indies, where you have lately loſt all your ſettlements?

You are (as you pretend, and as I am willing to allow) the very firſt people in the world for the invention of uſeful arts. But was it not John Gira de Melphi, a Neapolitan, who invented the compaſs? Was is not Schwartz, a German, that invented gunpowder? And was not the art of printing of which you make ſuch an extenſive uſe, the fruit of the invention of another German?

When you read, with avidity, the new pamphlets, on which your reputation as a learned nation is founded, you ſometimes, I ſuppoſe, make uſe of ſpectacles: You may thank for theſe Francis Spira, an Italian monk, without whoſe aſſiſtance, ſmall print would not have been viſible to your antiquated eyes. You make diſcoveries, or amuſe the ladies with teleſcopes, for the invention of which you are indebted to Metius, a Dutchman, and Galilei, a native of Florence.

Your barometers and thermometers amuſe you frequently; but to whom do you owe this pleaſure? To Torricelli, who invented the former, and to Drebellius, who was the inventor of the latter.

Many of your philoſophers have explored the true laws of the planetary ſyſtem; but was it not an inhabitant of Poliſh Pruſſia that diſcovered the ſublime ſecret of the Creator? If the uſe of logarithms has aſſiſted you in your calculations, you are indebted, for this ſuccour, to the indefatigable labour of Lord Napier and his aſſociates; and it is to Otto Guerick, of Magdeburgh, that you are obliged for the air pump.

The ſame Galilei, who has been already mentioned, diſcovered firſt the ſatellites of Jupiter, the ſpots of the ſun, and his rotation on his axis. Huygens, the Dutchman, ſaw Saturn's ring, and an Italian his ſatellites, when you ſaw nothing at all.

It was alſo the immortal Newton,

ton, who opened your eyes upon the true nature of light, and unfolded the great laws of motion, that regulate the courſe of the celeſtial luminaries, and make heavy bodies tend to the center.

Firſt people of the univerſe, you have nothing almoſt, that you can call your own. You love to adorn your cabinets with prints; but remember that the Florentine Finiguerra is the inventor of that elegant art which employs the graver to multiply and eternize the ſublime ſtrokes of the pencil. You have clocks, that meaſure the current of your ill-ſpent time; but the invention of theſe is due to the labours of the great Huygens.

On decency in converſation.

MUCH of the happineſs of life depends upon a ſtrict obſervance of the decencies of converſation, for converſation ſeldom takes place but in thoſe ſeaſons that are ſet apart for relaxation and entertainment; yet we have no inſtitution among us in which the art of converſation is taught, and the laws of it aſcertained. It may, perhaps, be thought difficult, if not impoſſible, to eſtabliſh ſuch an inſtitution, and many doubts may ariſe about the form and manner of conducting it. Inſtead of evincing its practicability by reaſoning upon it, or endeavouring to preſcribe its form or its operations, I ſhall give the following anecdote, which is curious in itſelf, and may, perhaps, have a better effect than the mere gratification of curioſity.

There is a very extenſive lordſhip near Lublin in Poland, which has been long in poſſeſſion of the houſe of Pſomka; the eldeſt branches of which are called Lords of Babine, the name of the eſtate.

There was at the court of Sigiſmond Auguſtus, a gentleman of the family of Pſomka, who, in concert with Peter Caſſovius, bailiff of Lublin, formed a ſociety, which the Poliſh writers call *The Republic of Babine*, and which the Germans denominate *the ſociety of fools*. This ſociety was inſtituted upon the model of the republic of Poland; it had its king, its chancellor, its councellors, its archbiſhops, biſhops, judges, and other officers: In this republic Pſomka had the title of captain, and Caſſovius that of chancellor: When any of the members did or ſaid any thing at their meetings which was unbecoming or ill timed, they immediately gave him a place of which he was required to perform the duties till another was appointed in his ſtead; for example, if any one ſpoke too much, ſo as to engroſs the converſation, he was appointed orator of the republic; if he ſpoke improperly, occaſion was taken from his ſubject to appoint him a ſuitable employment; if, for inſtance, he talked about dogs, he was made maſter of the buck-hounds; if he boaſted of his courage, he was made a knight, or, perhaps, a field-marſhal; and if he expreſſed a bigotted zeal for any ſpeculative opinion in religion, he was made an inquiſitor. The offenders being thus diſtinguiſhed for their follies and not their wiſdom, gave occaſion to the Germans, to call the republic *the ſo-*

ciety of fools, which, though a ſatyr on the individuals, was by no means ſo on the inſtitution. It happened that the king of Poland one day aſked Pſomka if they had choſen a king in the republic? To which he replied, *God forbid that we ſhould think of electing a king while your majeſty lives; your Majeſty will always be king of Babine, as well as Poland.* The king was not diſpleaſed with this ſally of humour, and enquired farther to what extent their republic reached? *Over the whole world*, ſays Pſomka, *for we are told by David, that all men are lyars.* This ſociety very ſoon increaſed ſo much, that there was ſcarce any perſon at court who was not honoured with ſome poſt in it, and its chiefs were alſo in high favour with the king. The view of this ſociety was to teach the young nobility a propriety of behaviour, and the arts of converſation; and it was a fundamental law that no ſlanderer ſhould be received into it. The regiment of the *Calot*, which was ſome years ſince eſtabliſhed in the court of France, is very ſimilar to the republic of *Babine*. J. H.

Unconnected Thoughts on Gardening. By Mr. Shenſtone.

GARDENING may be divided into three ſpecies—kitchen-gardening—parterre-gardening—and landſkip, or pictureſque-gardening: which latter is the ſubject intended in the following pages.—It conſiſts in pleaſing the imagination by ſcenes of grandeur, beauty, or variety. Convenience merely has no ſhare here, any farther than as it pleaſes the imagination.

Herhaps the diviſion of the pleaſures of imagination, according as they are ſtruck by the great, the various, and the beautiful, may be accurate enough for my preſent purpoſe: Why each of them affects us with pleaſure may be traced in an other author.

There ſeems however to be ſome objects which afford a pleaſure not reducible to either of the foregoing heads. A ruin, for inſtance, may be neither new to us, nor majeſtic, nor beautiful, yet afford that pleaſing melancholy which proceeds from a reflection on decayed magnificence. For this reaſon an able gardener ſhould avail himſelf of objects, perhaps, not very ſtriking, if they ſerve to connect ideas that convey reflections of the pleaſing kind.

Objects ſhould indeed be leſs calculated to ſtrike the immediate eye, than the judgment or well-formed imagination; as in painting.

It is no objection to the pleaſure of novelty, that it makes an ugly object more diſagreeable. It is enough that it produces a ſuperiority betwixt things in other reſpects equal. It ſeems, on ſome occaſions, to go even further. Are there not broken rocks and rugged grounds to which we can hardly attribute either beauty or grandeur, and yet, when introduced near an extent of lawn, impart a pleaſure equal to more ſhapely ſcenes? Thus a ſeries of lawn, though ever ſo beautiful, may ſatiate and cloy, unleſs the eye paſſes to them from wilder ſcenes; and then they acquire the grace of novelty.

Variety

Variety appears to me to derive good part of its effect from novelty; as the eye, passing from one form or colour to a form or colour of a different kind, finds a degree of novelty in its present object which affords immediate satisfaction.

Variety however, in some distances, may be carried to such excess as to lose its whole effect. I have observed cielings so crammed with stucco ornaments, that, although of the most different kind, they have produced an uniformity. A sufficient quantity of undecorated space is necessary to exhibit such decorations to advantage.

Ground should first be considered with an eye to its peculiar character. Whether it be the grand, the savage, the sprightly, the melancholy, the horrid, or the beautiful. As one or other of these characters prevail, one may somewhat strengthen its effect by allowing every part some denomination, and then supporting its title by suitable appendages—For instance, the lover's walk may have assignation seats, with proper mottoes—Urns to faithful lovers--Trophies, garlands, &c. by means of art.

What an advantage must some Italian seats derive from the circumstance of being situate on ground mentioned in the classics? And, even in England, wherever a park or garden happens to have been the scene of any event in history, one would surely avail ones self of that circumstance, to make it more interesting to the imagination. Mottoes should allude to it, columns, &c. record it; verses moralize upon it; and curiosity receive its share of pleasure.

In designing a house and gardens, it is happy when there is an opportunity of maintaining a subordination of parts; the house so luckily placed as to exhibit a view of the whole design. I have sometimes thought that there was room for it to resemble an epic or dramatic poem. It is rather to be wished than required, that the more striking scenes may succeed those which are less so.

Taste depends much upon temper. Some prefer Tibullus to Virgil, and Virgil to Homer—Hagley to Persfield, and Persfield to the Welsh mountains. This occasions the different preferences that are given to situations—A garden strikes us most where the grand and the pleasing succeed, not intermingle, with each other.

I believe, however, the sublime has generally a deeper effect than the merely beautiful.

I use the words landskip and prospect; the former as expressive of home scenes, the latter of distant images. Prospects should take in the blue distant hills; but never so remotely, that they be not distinguishable from clouds. Yet this mere extent is what the vulgar value.

Landskip should contain variety enough to form a picture upon canvas; and this is no bad test, as I think the landskip painter is the gardener's best designer. The eye requires a sort of ballance here; but not so as to encroach upon probable nature. A wood, or hill, may ballance a house or obelisk; for exactness would be displeasing; we form our notions from what we have seen, and tho' could we comprehend the universe, we might perhaps find it uniformly regular; yet the portions that we see of it, habituate our fancy to the contrary.

The eye ſhould always look rather down upon water: cuſtomary nature makes this requiſite. I know nothing more ſenſibly diſpleaſing than Mr. T—'s flat ground betwixt his terras and his water.

It is not eaſy to account for the fondneſs of former times for ſtrait-lined avenues to their houſes; ſtrait-lined walks through their woods; and in ſhort, every kind of ſtrait-line; where the foot is to travel over, what the eye has done before. This circumſtance, is one objection. Another, ſomewhat of of the ſame kind, is the repetition of the ſame object, tree after tree, for a length of way together. A third is, that this identity is purchaſed by the loſs of that variety, which the natural country ſupplies every where, in a greater or leſs degree. To ſtand ſtill and ſurvey ſuch avenues, may afford ſome ſlender ſatisfaction, through the change derived from perſpective; but to move on continually and find no change of ſcene in the leaſt attendant on our change of place, muſt give actual pain to a perſon of taſte. For ſuch an one to be condemned to paſs along the famous viſta from * Moſcow to Peterſburg, or that other from Agra to Lahor in India, muſt be as diſagreeable a ſentence, as to be condemned to labour at the gallies. I conceived ſome idea of the ſenſation he muſt feel, from walking, but a few minutes, immured, betwixt Lord D——'s high-ſhorn yew-hedges; which run exactly parallel, at the diſtance of about ten feet; and are contrived perfectly to exclude all kind of objects whatſoever.

When a building, or other object, has been once viewed from its proper point, the foot ſhould never travel to it by the ſame path, which the eye hath travelled over before. Loſe the object, and draw nigh, obliquely.

The ſide-trees in viſtas ſhould be ſo circumſtanced as to afford a probability that they grew by nature.

Ruinated ſtructures appear to derive their power of pleaſing, from the irregularity of ſurface, which is variety; and the latitude they afford the imagination, to conceive an enlargement of their dimenſions, or to recollect any events or circumſtances appertaining to their priſtine grandeur ſo far as concerns grandeur and ſolemnity. The breaks in them ſhould be as bold and abrupt as poſſible. —If mere beauty be aimed at (which however is not their chief excellence) the waving line, with more eaſy tranſitions, will become of greater importance—Events relating to them may be ſimulated by numberleſs little artifices; but it is ever to be remembered, that high hills and ſudden deſcents are moſt ſuitable to caſtles and fertile vales, near wood and water; moſt imitative of the uſual ſituation for abbeys and religious houſes; large oaks, in particular, are eſſential to theſe latter.

Whoſe branching arms, and reverend height
Admit a dim religious light.

A cottage is a pleaſing object, partly on account of the variety it may introduce on account of the tranquillity that ſeems to reign there, and perhaps (I am ſomewhat afraid) on account of the pride of human nature.

* In Monteſquieu on Taſte.

Longe

Longe alterius ſpectare laborem.

In a ſcene preſented to the eye, objects ſhould never lie ſo much to the right or left, as to give any uneaſineſs in the examination. Sometimes, however, it may be better to admit valuable objects even with this diſadvantage. They ſhould elſe never be ſeen beyond a certain angle. The eye muſt be eaſy, before it can be pleaſed.

No mere ſlope from one ſide to the other can be agreeable ground: The eye requires a ballance—i. e. a degree of uniformity: But this may be otherwiſe effected, and the rule ſhould be underſtood with ſome limitation.

— Each alley has its brother,
And half the plat-form juſt reflects the other.

Let us examine what may be ſaid in favour of that regularity which Mr. Pope expoſes. Might he not ſeemingly as well object to the diſpoſition of an human face, becauſe it has an eye or cheek, that is the very picture of its companion? Or does not providence, who has obſerved this regularity in the external ſtructure of our bodies, and diſregarded it within, ſeem to conſider it as a beauty? The arms, the limbs, and the ſeveral parts of them correſpond, but it is not the ſame caſe with the thorax and the abdomen. I believe one is generally ſollicitous for a kind of ballance in a landſkip, and, if I am not miſtaken, the painters generally furniſh one: A building, for inſtance, on one ſide, contraſted by a group of trees, a large oak, or a riſing hill on the other. Whence then does this taſte proceed, but from the love we bear to regularity in perfection? After all, in regard to gardens, the ſhape of ground, the diſpoſition of trees, and the figure of water, muſt be ſacred to nature, and no forms muſt be allowed that make a diſcovery of art.

All trees have a character analogous to that of men: Oaks are in all reſpects the perfect image of the manly character: In former times I ſhould have ſaid, and in preſent times I think I am authorized to ſay, the Britiſh one. As a brave man is not ſuddenly either elated by proſperity, or depreſſed by adverſity, ſo the oak diſplays not its verdure on the ſun's firſt approach; nor drops it, on his firſt departure. Add to this its majeſtic appearance, the rough grandeur of its bark, and the wide protection of its branches.

A large, branching, aged oak, is perhaps the moſt venerable of all inanimate objects.

Urns are more ſolemn, if large and plain; more beautiful, if leſs and ornamented. Solemnity is perhaps their point, and the ſituation of them ſhould ſtill co-operate with it.

By the way, I wonder that lead ſtatues are not more in vogue in our modern gardens. Tho' they may not expreſs the finer lines of an human body, yet they ſeem perfectly well calculated, on account of their duration, to embelliſh landſkips, were they ſome degrees inferior to what we generally behold. A ſtatue in a room challenges examination, and is to be examined critically as a ſtatue. A ſtatue in a garden is to be conſidered as one part of a ſcene or landſkip; the minuter touches are no more eſſential to it, than a good landſkip painter would eſteem them

them were he to repreſent a ſtatue in his picture.

Apparent art, in its proper province, is almoſt as important as apparent nature. They contraſt agreeably; but their provinces ever ſhould be kept diſtinct.

Where ſome artificial beauties are ſo dexterouſly managed that one cannot but conceive them natural, ſome natural ones ſo extremely fortunate that one is ready to ſwear they are artificial.

Concerning ſcenes, the more uncommon they appear, the better, provided they form a picture, and include nothing that pretends to be of nature's production, and is not. The ſhape of ground, the ſite of trees, and the fall of water, nature's province. Whatever thwarts her is treaſon.

On the other hand, buildings, and the works of art, need have no other reference to nature than that they afford the ευσεμνον with which the human mind is delighted.

Art ſhould never be allowed to ſet a foot in the province of nature, otherwiſe than clandeſtinely and by night. Whenever ſhe is allowed to appear here, and men begin to compromiſe the difference —Night, Gothiciſm, confuſion, and abſolute chaos are come again.

To ſee one's urns, obeliſks, and water-falls laid open; the nakedneſs of our beloved miſtreſſes, the naiads, and the dryads, expoſed by that ruffian winter to univerſal obſervation; is a ſeverity ſcarcely to be ſupported by the help of blazing hearths, chearful companions, and a bottle of the moſt grateful burgundy.

The works of a perſon that builds, begin immediately to decay; while thoſe of him who plants begin directly to improve. In this, planting promiſes a more laſting pleaſure, than building; which, were it to remain in equal perfection, would at beſt begin to moulder and want repairs in imagination. Now trees have a circumſtance that ſuits our taſte, and that is annual variety. It is inconvenient indeed, if they cauſe our love of life to take root and flouriſh with them; whereas the very fameneſs of our ſtructures will, without the help of dilapidation, ſerve to wean us from our attachment to them.

It is a cuſtom in ſome countries to condemn the characters of thoſe (after death) that have neither planted a tree, nor begat a child.

The taſte of the citizen and of the mere peaſant are in all reſpects the ſame. The former gilds his balls; paints his ſtone-work and ſtatues white; plants his trees in lines or circles; cuts his yew-trees four-ſquare or conic; or gives them, what he can, of the reſemblance of birds, or bears, or men; ſquirts up his rivulet in jetteaus; in ſhort, admires no part of nature, but her ductility; exhibits every thing that is glaring, that implies expence, or that effects a ſurprize becauſe it is unnatural. The peaſant is his admirer.

It is always to be remembered in gardening, that ſublimity or magnificence, and beauty or variety, are very different things. Every ſcene we ſee in nature is either tame and inſipid; or compounded of thoſe. It often happens that the ſame ground may receive from art, either certain degrees of ſublimity and magnificence, or certain

tain degrees of variety and beauty; or a mixture of each kind. In this case it remains to be considered in which light they can be rendered most remarkable, whether as objects of beauty, or magnificence. Even the temper of the proprietor should not perhaps be wholly disregarded: for certain complexions of soul will prefer an orange tree or a myrtle, to an oak or cedar. However this should not induce a gardener to parcel out a lawn into knots of shrubbery; or invest a mountain with a garb of roses. This would be like dressing a giant in a sarsenet gown, or a saracen's head in a Brussels night-cap. Indeed the small and circular clumps of firs, which I see planted upon some fine large swells, put me often in mind of a coronet placed on an elephant or camel's back. I say a gardener should not do this any more than a poet should attempt to write of the king of Prussia in the style of Philips. On the other side, what would become of Lesbia's sparrow, should it be treated in the same language with the anger of Achilles?

Gardeners may be divided into three sorts, the landskip-gardener, the parterre-gardener, and the kitchen-gardener, agreeably to our first division of gardens.

I have used the word landskip-gardeners; because in pursuance of our present taste in gardening every good painter of landskip appears to me the most proper designer. The misfortune of it is, that these painters are apt to regard the execution of their work, much more than the choice of subject.

The art of distancing and approximating comes truly within their sphere: The former by the gradual diminution of distinctness, and of size: the latter by the reverse. A strait-lined avenue, that is widened in front, and planted there with yew trees, then firs, then with trees more and more sady, till they end in the almond, willow, or silver osier, will produce a very remarkable deception of the former kind; which deception will be increased, if the nearer dark trees are proportionable and truly larger than those at the end of the avenue that are more sady.

To distance a building, plant as near as you can to it, two or three circles of different-coloured greens—Ever-greens are best for all such purposes———Suppose the outer one of holly, and the next of laurel, &c. The consequence will be that the imagination immediately allows a space betwixt these circles, and another betwixt the house and them; and as the imagined space is indeterminate, if your building be dim-coloured, it will not appear inconsiderable. The imagination is a greater magnifier than a microscopic glass. And on this head, I have known some instances, where by shewing intermediate ground, the distance has appeared less, than while an hedge or grove concealed it.

Hedges, appearing as such, are universally bad. They discover art in nature's province.

Trees in hedges partake of their artificiality, and become a part of them. There is no more sudden, and obvious improvement, than an

an hedge removed, and the trees remaining; yet not in ſuch manner as to mark out the former hedge.

Water ſhould ever appear, as an irregular lake, or winding ſtream.

Iſlands give beauty, if the water be adequate; but leſſen grandeur thro' variety.

It was the wiſe remark of ſome ſagacious obſerver, that familiarity is for the moſt part productive of contempt. Graceleſs offſpring of ſo amiable a parent! Unfortunate beings that we are, whoſe enjoyments muſt be either checked, or prove deſtructive of themſelves! Our paſſions are permitted to ſip a little pleaſure; but are extinguiſhed by indulgence, like a lamp overwhelmed with oil. Hence we neglect the beauty with which we have been intimate; nor would any addition it could receive, prove an equivalent for the advantage it derived from the firſt impreſſion. Thus negligent of graces that have the merit of reality, we too often prefer imaginary ones that have only the charm of novelty: And hence we may account, in general, for the preference of art to nature, in our old-faſhioned gardens.

Art, indeed, is often requiſite to collect and epitomize the beauties of nature; but ſhould never be ſuffered to ſet her mark upon them: I mean in regard to thoſe articles that are of nature's province; the ſhaping of ground, planting of trees, and the diſpoſition of lakes and rivulets. Many more particulars will ſoon occur, which, however, ſhe is allowed to regulate, ſomewhat clandeſtinely, upon the following account. —— Man is not capable of comprehending the univerſe at one ſurvey. Had he faculties equal to this, he might well be cenſured for any minute regulations of his own. It were the ſame, as if, in his preſent ſituation, he ſtrove to find amuſement in contriving the fabric of an ant's neſt, or the partitions of a bee-hive. But we are placed in the corner of a ſphere; endued neither with organs, nor allowed a ſtation, proper to give us an univerſal view; or to exhibit to us the variety, the orderly proportions, and diſpoſitions of the ſyſtem. We perceive many breaks and blemiſhes, ſeveral neglected and unvariegated places in the part; which, in the whole, would appear either imperceptible, or beautiful. And we might as rationally expect a ſnail to be ſatisfied with the beauty of our parterres, ſlopes, and terraſſes—or an ant to prefer our buildings to her own orderly range of granaries, as that man ſhould be ſatisfied, without a ſingle thought that he can improve the ſpot that falls to his ſhare. But, though art be neceſſary for collecting nature's beauties, by what reaſon is ſhe authorized to thwart and to oppoſe her? Why, fantaſtically endeavour to humanize thoſe vegetables, of which nature, diſcreet nature, thought it proper to make trees? Why endow the vegetable bird with wings, which nature has made momentarily dependent upon the ſoil? Here art ſeems very affectedly to make a diſplay of that induſtry, which it is her glory to conceal. The ſtone which repreſents

preſents an aſteriſk, is valued only on account of its natural production: Nor do we view with pleaſure the laboured carvings and futile diligence of Gothic artiſts. We view with much more ſatisfaction ſome plain Grecian fabric, where art, indeed, has been equally, but leſs viſibly, induſtrious. It is thus we, indeed, admire the ſhining texture of the ſilk-worm; but we loath the puny author, when ſhe thinks proper to emerge; and to diſguſt us with the appearance of ſo vile a grub.

But this is merely true in regard to the particulars of nature's province; wherein art can only appear as the moſt abject vaſſal, and had, therefore, better not appear at all. The caſe is different where ſhe has the direction of buildings, uſeful or ornamental; or, perhaps, claims as much honour from temples, as the deities to whom they are inſcribed. Here then it is her intereſt to be ſeen as much as poſſible: And, though nature appear doubly beautiful by the contraſt her ſtructures furniſh, it is not eaſy for her to confer a benefit, which nature, on her ſide, will not repay.

A rural ſcene to me is never perfect without the addition of ſome kind of building: Indeed I have known a ſcar of rock-work, in great meaſure, ſupply the deficiency.

In gardening it is no ſmall point to enforce either grandeur or beauty, by ſurpriſe; for inſtance, by abrupt tranſition from their contraries—but to lay a ſtreſs upon ſurpriſe only; for example, on the ſurpriſe occaſioned by an aha! without including any nobler purpoſe, is a ſymptom of bad taſte, and a violent fondneſs for mere concetto.

Grandeur and beauty are ſo very oppoſite, that you often diminiſh the one as you increaſe the other. Variety is moſt a-kin to the latter, ſimplicity to the former.

Suppoſe a large hill, varied by art, with large patches of different-coloured clumps, ſcars of rock, chalk quarries, villages, or farm-houſes: you will have, perhaps, a more beautiful ſcene, but much leſs grand than it was before.

In many inſtances, it is moſt eligible to compound your ſcene of beauty and grandeur— Suppoſe a magnificent ſwell ariſing out of a well-variegated valley; it would be diſadvantageous to increaſe its beauty, by means deſtructive to its magnificence.

There may poſſibly, but there ſeldom happens, any occaſion to fill up valleys with trees, or otherwiſe. It is for the moſt part the gardener's buſineſs to remove trees, or aught that fills up the lower ground; and to give as far as nature allows, an artificial eminence to the high.

The hedge-row apple-trees in Herefordſhire afford a moſt beautiful ſcenery, at the time they are in bloſſom: But the proſpect would be really grander, did it conſiſt of ſimple foliage. For the ſame reaſon, a large oak (or beech) in autumn, is a grander object than the ſame in ſpring. The ſprightly green is then obfuſcated.

Smoothneſs and eaſy tranſitions are no ſmall ingredient in the beautiful; abrupt and rectangular breaks have more of the nature of the ſublime. Thus a tapering ſpire

ſpire is, perhaps, a more beautiful object than a tower, which is grander.

Many of the different opinions relating to the preference to be given to ſeats, villas, &c. are owing to want of diſtinction betwixt the beautiful and the magnificent. Both the former and the latter pleaſe; but there are imaginations particularly adapted to the one, and to the other.

Mr. Addiſon thought an open unincloſed champain country, formed the beſt landſkip. Somewhat here is to be conſidered. Large, unvariegated, ſimple objects have the beſt pretenſions to ſublimity; a large mountain, whoſe ſides are unvaried with objects, is grander than one with infinite variety: But then its beauty is proportionably leſs.

However, I think, a plain ſpace near the eye gives it a kind of liberty it loves: And then the picture, whether you chuſe the grand or beautiful, ſhould be held up at its proper diſtance. Variety is the principal ingredient in beauty; and ſimplicity is eſſential to grandeur.

Offenſive objects, at a proper diſtance, acquire even a degree of beauty. For inſtance, ſtubble, fallow ground—

An original letter from Mr. Pope *to the Ducheſs of* Hamilton.

London, Oct. the —, between day and night. The writer drunk.

Madam,

MRS. Whitworth (who, as her epitaph on Twitenham highway aſſures us, had attained to as much perfection and purity as any ſince the apoſtles) is now depoſited, according to her own order, between a fig-tree and a vine, there to be found out at the laſt reſurrection.

I am juſt come from ſeeing your Grace in much the like ſituation, between a honey-ſuckle and a roſe buſh; where you are to continue as long as canvaſs can laſt. I ſuppoſe the painter by theſe emblems intended to intimate, on the one hand, your grace's diſpoſition to your friends: And on the other, to ſhew you are near enough related to the thiſtle of Scotland, to deſerve the ſame motto with regard to our enemies:

*Nemo me impune laceſſit.**

The two foregoing periods, methinks, are ſo myſtical, learned and perplexed, that if you have any ſtateſmen or divines about you, they can't chuſe but be pleaſed with them. One divine you cannot be without, as a good chriſtian; and a ſtateſman you have lately had; for I hear my lord Selkirk has been with you. But (that I may not be unintelligible quite to the bottom of this page) I muſt tell your grace in Engliſh, that I have made a painter beſtow the foreſaid ornaments round about you (for upon you there needs none) and am, upon the whole, pleaſed with my picture beyond expreſſion.

I may now ſay of your picture, it is the thing in the world the likeſt you except yourſelf; as a cautious perſon once ſaid of an

* Lord William will conſtrue this Latin if you ſend it to Iſleworth.

elephant

elephant; it was the biggeſt in the world except itſelf.

You ſee, madam, it is not impoſſible for you to be compared to an elephant. And you muſt give me leave to ſhew you one may carry on the ſimile.

An elephant never bends his knees; and I am told your grace ſays no prayers. An elephant has a moſt remarkable command of his ſnout, and ſo has your grace, when you imitate my lady Orkney. An elephant is a great lover of men, and ſo is your grace, for all I know; though from your partiality to myſelf, I ſhould rather think you love little children.

I beg you not to be diſcouraged in this point: Remember the text, which I'll preach upon the firſt day I am a parſon, *Suffer little children to come unto me*—And, *deſpiſe not one of theſe little ones*.

No, madam — deſpiſe great beaſts, ſuch as Gay; who now goes by the dreadful name of, the beaſt of Blois, where Mr. Pulteney and he are ſettled, and where he ſhews tricks gratis, to all the beaſts of his own country (for ſtrangers do not yet underſtand the voice of the beaſt.) I have heard from him but once, lord Warwick twice, Mrs. Lepell thrice: If there be any that has heard from him four times, I ſuppoſe it is you.

I beg Mr. Blundell may know, Dr. Logg has received ordination, and, enters on his functions this winter at Mrs. Blountt's. They have choſen this innocent man for their confeſſor; and I believe moſt Roman catholic ladies, that have any ſins, will follow their example. This good prieſt will be of the order of Melchiſedeck, a prieſt for ever, and ſerve a family from generation to generation. He'll ſtand in a corner as quietly as a clock, and being wound up once a week, ſtrike up a loud alarum on a Sunday morning. Nay, if the Chriſtian religion ſhould be aboliſhed (as indeed there is great reaſon to expect it, from the wiſdom of the legiſlature) he might at worſt make an excellent bonfire; which is all that (upon a change of religion) can be deſired from an heretic. I do not hope your grace ſhould be converted; but however, I wiſh you would call at Mrs. B—'s out of curioſity: to meet people one likes, is thought by ſome the beſt reaſon for going to church; and I dare promiſe you'll like one another: They are extremely your ſervants, or elſe I ſhould not think them my friends.

I ought to keep up the cuſtom, and aſk you to ſend me ſomething. Therefore pray, madam, ſend me yourſelf; that is a letter; and pray make haſte to bring up yourſelf, that is all I value, to town.

I am with the trueſt reſpect, the leaſt ceremony, and the moſt zeal,

Madam,
Your Grace's
Moſt obedient, faithful,
And moſt humble ſervant,
A. POPE.

"Mr. Hamilton, I am your's," There is a ſhort letter for you.

POETRY.

POETRY.

ELEGY, *by Mr.* SHENSTONE.

WHY mourns my friend! Why weeps his downcaſt eye?
That eye where mirth, where fancy us'd to ſhine?
Thy chearful meads reprove that ſwelling ſigh;
Spring ne'er enamell'd fairer meads than thine.

Art thou not lodg'd in fortune's warm embrace?
Wert thou not form'd by nature's partial care?
Bleſt in thy ſong, and bleſt in ev'ry grace
That wins the friend, or that enchants the fair?

Damon, ſaid he, thy partial praiſe reſtrain!
Not Damon's friendſhip can my peace reſtore;
Alas! his very praiſe awakes my pain,
And my poor wounded boſom bleeds the more:

For oh! that nature on my birth had frown'd!
Or fortune fix'd me to ſome lowly cell!
Then had my boſom 'ſcap'd this fatal wound,
Nor had I bid theſe vernal ſweets, farewel.

But let by fortune's hand, her darling child,
My youth her vain licentious bliſs admir'd;
In fortune's train the ſyren Flattery ſmil'd,
And raſhly hallow'd all her queen inſpir'd.

Of folly ſtudious, ev'n of vices vain,
Ah vices! gilded by the rich and gay!
I chas'd the guileleſs daughters of the plain,
Nor dropt the chaſe, till Jeſſy was my prey.

Poor artleſs maid! to ſtain thy ſpotleſs name,
Expence, and art, and toil, united ſtrove;
To lure a breaſt that felt the pureſt flame,
Suſtain'd by virtue, but betray'd by love.

School'd

School'd in the ſcience of love's mazy wiles,
I cloath'd each feature with affected ſcorn;
I ſpoke of jealous doubts, and fickle ſmiles,
And, feigning, left her anxious and forlorn.

Then, while the fancy'd rage alarm'd her care,
Warm to deny, and zealous to diſprove;
I bade my words the wonted ſoftneſs wear,
And ſeiz'd the minute of returning love.

To thee, my Damon, dare I paint the reſt?
Will yet thy love a candid ear incline?
Aſſur'd that virtue, by misfortune preſt,
Feels not the ſharpneſs of a pang like mine.

Nine envious moons matur'd her growing ſhame;
Ere while to flaunt it in the face of day;
When ſcorn'd of virtue, ſtigmatiz'd by fame,
Low at my feet deſponding Jeſſy lay.

"Henry, ſhe ſaid, by thy dear form ſubdu'd,
See the ſad reliques of a nymph undone!
I find, I find this riſing ſob renew'd:
I ſigh in ſhades, and ſicken at the ſun!

Amid the dreary gloom of night, I cry,
When will the morn's once pleaſing ſcenes return!
Yet what can morn's returning ray ſupply,
But foes that triumph, or but friends that mourn!

Alas! no more that joyous morn appears
That led the tranquil hours of ſpotleſs fame;
For I have ſteep'd a father's couch in tears,
And ting'd a mother's glowing cheek with ſhame!

The vocal birds that raiſe their matin ſtrain;
The ſportive lambs, increaſe my penſive moan;
All ſeem to chaſe me from the chearful plain,
And talk of truth and innocence alone.

If through the garden's flow'ry tribes I ſtray,
Where bloom the jaſmins that could once allure,
Hope not to find delight in us, they ſay,
For we are ſpotleſs, JESSY; we are pure.

Ye flow'rs that well reproach a nymph ſo frail,
Say, could ye with my virgin fame compare?
The brighteſt bud that ſcents the vernal gale
Was not ſo fragrant, and was not ſo fair.

Now the grave old alarm the gentler young;
And all my fame's abhorr'd contagion flee;
Trembles each lip, and faulters every tongue,
That bids the morn propitious ſmile on me.

Thus for your ſake I ſhun each human eye;
I bid the ſweets of blooming youth adieu;
To die I languiſh, but I dread to die,
Leſt my ſad fate ſhould nouriſh pangs for you.

Raiſe me from earth; the pains of want remove,
And let me ſilent ſeek ſome friendly ſhore!
There only, baniſh'd from the form I love,
My weeping virtue ſhall relapſe no more.

Be but my friend; I aſk no dearer name;
Be ſuch the meed of ſome more artful fair;
Nor could it heal my peace, or chaſe my ſhame,
That pity gave, what love refus'd to ſhare.

Force not my tongue to aſk its ſcanty bread,
Nor hurl thy Jeſſy to the vulgar crew;
Not ſuch the parent's board at which I fed!
Not ſuch the precept from his lips I drew!

Haply, when age has ſilver'd o'er my hair,
Malice may learn to ſcorn ſo mean a ſpoil;
Envy may ſlight a face no longer fair;
And pity, welcome, to my native ſoil."

She ſpoke—nor was I born of ſavage race;
Nor could theſe hands a niggard boon aſſign;
Grateful ſhe claſp'd me in a laſt embrace,
And vow'd to waſte her life in pray'rs for mine.

I ſaw her foot the lofty bark aſcend;
I ſaw her breaſt with every paſſion heave;
I left her—torn from every earthly friend;
Oh! my hard boſom, which could bear to leave!

Brief let me be; the fatal ſtorm aroſe;
The billows rag'd; the pilot's art was vain;
O'er the tall maſt the circling ſurges cloſe;
My Jeſſy—floats upon the wat'ry plain!

And—ſee my youth's impetuous fires decay,
Seek not to ſtop reflection's bitter tear;
But warn the frolic, and inſtruct the gay,
From Jeſſy floating on her wat'ry bier!

The NUN, *an Elegy, by the Author of the Magdalens.*

WITH each perfection dawning on her mind,
All beauty's treaſure opening on her cheek,
Each flatt'ring hope ſubdued, each wiſh reſign'd,
Does gay Ophelia this lone manſion ſeek?

Say, gentle maid, what prompts thee to forſake
The paths, thy birth and fortune ſtrew with flow'rs?
Thro' nature's kind endearing ties to break,
And waſte in cloyſter'd walls thy penſive hours?

Let ſober thought reſtrain thine erring zeal,
That guides thy footſteps to the veſtal gate,
Leſt thy ſoft heart (this friendſhip bids reveal)
Like mine unbleſt ſhou'd mourn like mine too late.

Does ſome angelic lonely-whiſp'ring voice,
Some ſacred impulſe, or ſome dream divine,
Approve the dictates of thy early choice?—
Approach with confidence the aweful ſhrine.

There kneeling at yon altar's marble baſe
(While tears of rapture from thine eye-lid ſteal,
And ſmiling Heav'n illumes thy ſoul with grace)
Pronounce the vow, thou never can'ſt repeal.

Yet if miſled by falſe-entitled friends,
Who ſay—"That Peace with all her comely train,
"From ſtarry regions to this clime deſcends,
"Smooths ev'ry frown, and ſoftens ev'ry pain:

"That veſtals tread Contentment's flow'ry lawn,
"Approv'd of Innocence, by Health careſt:
"That rob'd in colours bright, by Fancy drawn,
"Celeſtial Hope ſits ſmiling at their breaſt."

Suſpect their Syren ſong and artful ſtyle,
Their pleaſing ſounds ſome treach'rous thought conceal:
Full oft does Pride with ſainted voice beguile,
And ſordid Int'reſt wear the maſk of zeal.

A tyrant-abbeſs here perchance may reign,
Who, fond of pow'r, affects th' imperial nod,
Looks down diſdainful on her female train,
And rules the cloyſter with an iron rod.

Reflection

Reflection ſickens at the life-long tie,
Back-glancing Mem'ry acts her buſy part,
Its charms the world unfolds to Fancy's eye,
And ſheds allurement on the wiſhful heart.

Lo! Diſcord enters at the ſacred porch,
Rage in her frown, and terror on her creſt:
Ev'n at the hallow'd lamps ſhe lights her torch,
And holds it flaming to each virgin breaſt.

But ſince the legends of monaſtic bliſs
By Fraud are fabled, and by Youth believ'd,
Unbought experience learn from my diſtreſs,
Oh! mark my lot, and be no more deceiv'd.

Three luſtres ſcarce with haſty wing were fled,
When I was torn from ev'ry weeping friend,
A thoughtleſs victim to the temple led,
And (bluſh ye parents) by a father's hand.

Yet then what ſolemn ſcenes deceiv'd my choice?
The pealing organ's animating ſound,
The choral virgins' captivating voice,
The blazing altar, and the prieſts around:

The train of youths array'd in pureſt white,
Who ſcatter'd myrtles as I paſs'd along:
The thouſand lamps that pour'd a flood of light,
The kiſs of peace from all the veſtal throng:

The golden cenſers toſs'd with graceful hand,
Whoſe fragrant breath Arabian odor ſhed:
Of meek-ey'd novices the circling band,
With blooming chaplets wove around their head.

—My willing ſoul was caught in rapture's flame,
While ſacred ardor glow'd in ev'ry vein:
Methought applauding angels ſung my name,
And heav'n's unſullied glories gilt the fane.

This temporary tranſport ſoon expir'd,
My drooping heart confeſs'd a dreadful void:
E'er ſince, alas! abandon'd, uninſpir'd,
I tread this dome to Miſery allied.

No wakening Joy informs my ſullen breaſt,
Thro' opening ſkies no radiant Seraph ſmiles,
No Saint deſcends to ſooth my ſoul to reſt,
No dream of bliſs the dreary night beguiles.

Here

Here haggard Diſcontent ſtill haunts my view;
The ſombre genius reigns in ev'ry place
Arrays each virtue in the darkeſt hue,
Chills ev'ry pray'r, and cancels ev'ry grace.

I meet her ever in the chearleſs cell,
The gloomy grotto and unſocial wood:
I hear her ever in the midnight bell,
The hollow gale, and hoarſe-reſounding flood.

This caus'd a mother's tender tears to flow,
(The ſad remembrance time ſhall ne'er eraſe)
When having ſeal'd th' irrevocable vow
I haſten'd to receive her laſt embrace.

Full-well ſhe then preſag'd my wretched fate,
Th' unhappy moments of each future day:
When lock'd within this terror-ſhedding grate,
My joy-deſerted ſoul wou'd pine away.

Yet ne'er did her maternal voice unfold
This cloyſter'd ſcene in all its horror dreſt
Nor did ſhe then my trembling ſteps withhold
When here I enter'd a reluctant gueſt.

Ah! could ſhe view her only child betray'd,
And let ſubmiſſion o'er her love prevail?
Th' unfeeling prieſt why did ſhe not upbraid?
Forbid the vow, and rend the hov'ring veil?

Alas! ſhe might not—her relentleſs lord
Had ſeal'd her lips, and chid her ſtreaming tears,
So anguiſh in her breaſt conceal'd its hoard,
And all the mother ſunk in dumb deſpair.

But thou who own'ſt a father's ſacred name,
What act impell'd thee to this ruthleſs deed?
What crime had forfeited my filial claim?
And giv'n (oh blaſting thought!) thy heart to bleed?

If then thine injur'd child deſerve thy care,
Oh haſte and bear her from this loneſome gloom!
In vain—no words can ſooth his rigid ear:
And Gallia's laws have riveted my doom.

Ye cloyſter'd fair—ye cenſure-breathing ſaints,
Suppreſs your taunts, and learn at length to ſpare,
Tho' mid theſe holy walls I vent my plaints,
And give to ſorrow what is due to pray'r.

I fled not to this manſion's deep receſs,
To veil the bluſhes of a guilty ſhame,

The tenor of an ill-ſpent life redreſs,
And ſnatch from infamy a ſinking name.

Yet let me to my fate ſubmiſſive bow:
From fatal ſymptoms if I right conceive,
This ſtream Ophelia has not long to flow,
This voice to murmur, and this breaſt to heave.

Ah! when extended on th' untimely bier
To yonder vault this form ſhall be convey'd,
Thoul't not refuſe to ſhed one grateful tear,
And brea the the *requiem* to my fleeting ſhade.

With pious footſtep join the ſable train,
As thro' the lengthening iſle they take their way;
A glimmering taper let thy hand ſuſtain,
Thy ſoothing voice attune the funeral lay:

Behold the miniſter who lately gave
The ſacred veil, in garb of mournful hue,
(More friendly office) bending o'er my grave,
And ſprinkling my remains with hallow'd dew:

As o'er the corſe he ſtrews the rattling duſt,
The ſterneſt heart will raiſe compaſſion's ſigh:
Ev'n then no longer to his child unjuſt,
The tears may trickle from *a father's* eye.

Characters of the Italians and Swiſs contraſted.

From the Traveller, or a Proſpect of Society, a Poem by Dr. Goldſmith.

FAR to the right, where Appennine aſcends
Bright as the ſummer, Italy extends;
Her uplands ſloping deck the mountain's ſide,
Woods over woods, in gay theatric pride;
While oft ſome temple's mould'ring top between,
With venerable grandeur marks the ſcene.

Could Nature's bounty ſatisfy the breaſt,
The ſons of Italy were ſurely bleſt.
Whatever fruits in different climes are found,
That proudly riſe or humbly court the ground,
Whatever blooms in torrid tracts appear,
Whoſe bright ſucceſſion decks the varied year;
Whatever ſweets ſalute the northern ſky
With vernal lives that bloſſom but to die;
Theſe here diſporting, own the kindred ſoil,
Nor aſk luxuriance from the planter's toil;

While

While ſea-born gales their gelid wings expand
To winnow fragrance round the ſmiling land.

But ſmall the bliſs that ſenſe alone beſtows,
And ſenſual bliſs is all this nation knows.
In florid beauty groves and fields appear,
Men ſeem the only growth that dwindles here.
Contraſted faults through all their manners reign,
Though poor, luxurious; though ſubmiſſive, vain;
Though grave, yet trifling; zealous, yet untrue;
And even in penance planning ſins anew.
All evils here contaminate the mind,
That opulence departed, leaves behind;
For wealth was theirs, nor far remov'd the date,
When Commerce proudly flouriſh'd through the ſtate:
At her command the palace learnt to riſe,
Again the long-fall'n column ſought the ſkies;
The canvaſs glow'd beyond even nature warm,
The pregnant quarry teem'd with human form.
But, more unſteady than the ſouthern gale,
Soon Commerce turn'd on other ſhores her ſail;
And late the nation found, with fruitleſs ſkill,
Their former ſtrength was now plethoric ill.

Yet, though to fortune loſt, here ſtill abide
Some ſplendid arts, the wrecks of former pride;
From which the feeble heart and long fall'n mind
An eaſy compenſation ſeem to find.
Here may be ſeen, in bloodleſs pomp array'd,
The paſte-board triumph and the cavalcade;
Proceſſions form'd for piety and love,
A miſtreſs or a ſaint in every grove.
By ſports like theſe are all their cares beguil'd,
The ſports of children ſatisfy the child,
At ſports like theſe, while foreign arms advance,
In paſſive eaſe they leave the world to chance.

When ſtruggling Virtue ſinks by long controul,
She leaves at laſt, or feebly mans the ſoul,
While low delights, ſucceeding faſt behind,
In happier meanneſs occupy the mind:
As in thoſe domes, where Cæſars once bore ſway,
Defac'd by time and tottering in decay,
Amidſt the ruin, heedleſs of the dead,
The ſhelter-ſeeking peaſant builds his ſhed,
And, wond'ring man could want the larger pile,
Exults, and owns his cottage with a ſmile.

My ſoul turn from them, turn we to ſurvey
Where rougher climes a nobler race diſplay,
Where the bleak Swiſs their ſtormy manſions tread,
And force a churliſh ſoil for ſcanty bread;
No product here the barren hills afford,
But man and ſteel, the ſoldier and his ſword.
No vernal blooms their torpid rocks array,
But winter lingering chills the lap of May;
No zephyr fondly ſooths the mountain's breaſt,
But meteors glare, and ſtormy glooms inveſt.
Yet ſtill, even here, Content can ſpread a charm,
Redreſs the clime, and all its rage diſarm.
Tho' poor the peaſant's hut, his feaſts tho' ſmall
He ſees his little lot, the lot of all;
Sees no contiguous palace rear its head
To ſhame the meanneſs of his humble ſhed;
No coſtly lord the ſumptuous banquet deal
To make him loath his vegetable meal;
But calm, and bred in ignorance and toil.
Each wiſh contracting, fits him to the ſoil:
Chearful at morn he wakes from ſhort repoſe,
Breaſts the keen air, and carrols as he goes;
With patient angle trolls the finny deep,
Or drives his vent'rous plow-ſhare to the ſteep;
Or ſeeks the den where ſnow-tracks mark the way,
And drags the ſtruggling ſavage into day.
At night returning every labour ſped,
He ſits him down the monarch of a ſhed;
Smiles by his chearful fire, and round ſurveys
His childrens looks, that brighten at the blaze;
While his lov'd partner, boaſtful of her hoard,
Diſplays the cleanly platter on the board;
And haply too ſome pilgrim, thither led,
With many a tale repays the nightly bed.

Thus every good his native wilds impart,
Imprints the patriot paſſion on his heart.
Dear is that ſhed to which his ſoul conforms,
And dear that hill which lifts him to the ſtorms;
And as a babe, when ſcaring ſounds moleſt,
Clings cloſe and cloſer to the mother's breaſt;
So the loud torrent, and the whirlwind's roar,
But bind him to his native mountains more.

Theſe are the charms to barren ſtates aſſign'd;
Their wants are few, their wiſhes all confin'd.

Yet

Yet let them only ſhare the praiſes due,
If few their wants, their pleaſures are but few;
Since every want, that ſtimulates the breaſt,
Becomes a ſource of pleaſure when redreſt.
Hence from ſuch lands each pleaſing ſcience flies,
That firſt excites deſire, and then ſupplies;
Unknown to them, when ſenſual pleaſures cloy,
To fill the languid pauſe with finer joy;
Unknown thoſe powers that raiſe the ſoul to flame,
Catch every nerve, and vibrate though the frame.
Their level life is but a ſmould'ring fire,
Nor quench'd by want, nor fan'd by ſtrong deſire;
Unfit for raptures, or, if raptures cheer,
On ſome high feſtival of once a year,
In wild exceſs the vulgar breaſt takes fire,
Till, buried in debauch, the bliſs expire.

But not their joys alone thus coarſly flow:
Their morals, like their pleaſures, are but low.
For, as refinement ſtops, from ſire to ſon
Unalter'd, unimprov'd their manners run,
And love's and friendſhip's finely pointed dart
Fall blunted from each indurated heart,
Some ſterner virtues o'er the mountain's breaſt
May ſit, like falcons cow'ring on the neſt;
But all the gentler morals, ſuch as play
Thro' life's more cultur'd walks, and charm our way,
Theſe far diſpers'd, on timorous pinions fly,
To ſport and flutter in a kinder ſky.

A Deſcription of the Ancient Britons. From Churchill.

——STretch'd out in length,
Where Nature put forth all her ſtrength
In Spring eternal, lay a plain,
Where our brave fathers us'd to train
Their ſons to arms, to teach the art
Of war, and ſteel the infant heart.
Labour, their hardy nurſe when young,
Their joints had knit, their nerves had ſtrung;
Abſtinence, foe declar'd to death,
Had, from the time they firſt drew breath,
The beſt of doctors, with plain food,
Kept pure the channel of their blood;
Health in their cheeks bad colour riſe,
And glory ſparkled in their eyes.

The inſtruments of huſbandry,
As in contempt, were all thrown by,
And flattering a manly pride,
War's keener tools their place ſupply'd.
Their arrows to the head they drew;
Swift to the point their javelins flew;
They graſp'd the ſword, they ſhook the ſpear;
Their fathers felt a pleaſing fear.
And even *Courage*, ſtanding by,
Scarcely beheld with ſteady eye.
Each ſtripling, leſſon'd by his ſire,
Knew when to cloſe, when to retire,
When near at hand, when from afar
To fight, and was himſelf a war.
Their wives, their mothers all around,
Careleſs of order, on the ground
Breath'd forth to heaven the pious vow,
And for a ſon's or huſband's brow,
With eager fingers laurel wove;
Laurel, which in the ſacred grove
Planted by Liberty they find,
The brows of conquerors to bind,
To give them pride and ſpirits, fit
To make a world in arms ſubmit.
What raptures did the boſom fire
Of the young, rugged, peaſant ſire,
When, from the toil of mimic fight,
Returning with return of night,
He ſaw his babe reſign the breaſt,
And, ſmiling, ſtroke thoſe arms in jeſt,
With which hereafter he ſhall make
The proudeſt heart in *Gallia* quake!
Gods! with what joy, what honeſt pride,
Did each fond, wiſhing, ruſtic bride,
Behold her manly ſwain return!
How did her love-ſick boſom burn,
Tho' on parades he was not bred,
Nor wore the livery of red,
When, pleaſure height'ning all her charms,
She ſtrain'd her warrior in her arms,
And begg'd, whilſt Love and Glory fire,
A ſon, a ſon juſt like his ſire!

State of the Savages. From Churchill.

HAPPY the Savage of thoſe early times
Ere Europe's ſons were known, and Europe's crimes!
Gold,

Gold, curſed gold! ſlept in the womb of earth,
Unfelt its miſchiefs, as unknown its worth;
In full content he found the trueſt wealth;
In toil he found diverſion, food, and health;
Strange to the eaſe and luxury of courts,
His ſports were labours, and his labours ſports;
His youth was hardy, and his old age green;
Life's morn was vig'rous, and her eve ſerene;
No rules he held, but what were made for uſe;
No arts he learn'd, nor ills which arts produce;
Falſe lights he follow'd, but believ'd them true;
He knew not much, but liv'd to what he knew.
Happy, thrice happy, now the ſavage race,
Since Europe took their gold, and gave them grace!
Paſtors ſhe ſends to help them in their need,
Some who can't write, with others who can't read,
And, on ſure ground the goſpel pile to rear,
Sends Miſſionary felons every year;
Our vices, with more zeal than holy pray'rs,
She teaches them, and in return takes theirs;
Her rank oppreſſions give them cauſe to riſe,
Her want of prudence means, and arms ſupplies,
Whilſt her brave rage, not ſatisfied with life,
Riſing in blood, adopts the Scalping-knife;
Knowledge ſhe gives, enough to make them know
How abject is their ſtate, how deep their woe;
The worth of freedom ſtrongly ſhe explains,
Whilſt ſhe bow down, and loads their necks with chains;
Faith too ſhe plants, for her own ends impreſt,
To make them bear the worſt, and hope the beſt;
And whilſt ſhe teaches on vile int'reſt's plan,
As laws of God, the wild decrees of man,
Like Phariſees, of whom the Scriptures tell,
She makes them ten times more the ſons of hell.
But whither do theſe grave reflections tend?
Are they deſign'd for any or no end?
Briefly but this—to prove, that by no act
Which nature made, that by no equal pact
'Twixt man and man, which might, if juſtice heard,
Stand good, that by no benefits conferr'd,
Or purchaſe made, Europe in chains can hold
The ſons of India, and her mines of gold,

Peaſant and King, contraſted. From Churchill.

THE villager born humbly, and bred hard,
Content his wealth, and poverty his guard,

In

In action ſimply juſt, in conſcience clear,
By guilt untainted, undiſturb'd by fear,
His means but ſcanty, and his wants but few,
Labour his bus'neſs, and his pleaſure too,
Enjoys more comforts in a ſingle hour,
Than ages give the wretch condemn'd to pow'r:
Call'd up by health, he riſes with the day,
And goes to work, as if he went to play,
Whiſtling off toils, one half of which might make
The ſtouteſt Atlas of a palace quake;
'Gainſt heat and cold, which make us cowards faint;
Harden'd by conſtant uſe, without complaint
He bears, what we ſhould think it death to bear;
Short are his meals, and homely is his fare;
His thirſt he ſlakes at ſome pure neighb'ring brook,
Nor aſks for ſauce, where appetite ſtands cook.
When the dews fall, and when the ſun retires
Behind the mountains, when the village fires,
Which wakened all at once, ſpeak ſupper nigh,
At diſtance catch, and fix his longing eye.
Homeward he hies, and with his manly brood
Of raw-bon'd cubs, enjoys that clean coarſe food,
Which ſeaſon'd with good humour, his fond bride
'Gainſt his return is happy to provide.
Then free from care, and free from thought, he creeps
Into his ſtraw, and till the morning ſleeps.
Not ſo the king; with anxious cares oppreſt,
His boſom labours, and admits not reſt.
A glorious wretch, he ſweats beneath the weight
Of majeſty, and gives up eaſe for ſtate;
Ev'n when his ſmiles, which by the fools of pride
Are treaſur'd and preſerv'd, from ſide to ſide
Fly round the court; ev'n when compell'd by form
He ſeems moſt calm, his court is in a ſtorm.
Care, like a ſpectre ſeen by him alone,
With all her neſt of vipers round his throne,
By day crawls full in view; when night bids ſleep,
Sweet nurſe of nature, o'er the ſenſes creep;
When miſery herſelf no more complains,
And ſlaves, if poſſible, forget their chains;
Tho' his ſenſe weakens, tho' his eye grows dim,
That reſt, which comes to all, comes not to him.
Ev'n at that hour, *Care*, tyrant *Care* forbids
The dew of ſleep to fall upon his lids;
From night to night ſhe watches at his bed;
Now, as one mop'd ſits brooding o'er his head;
Anon ſhe ſtarts, and borne on raven's wings,
Croaks forth aloud—Sleep was not made for kings.

A Cha-

A Character. From Churchill.

FROM his youth upwards to the preſent day,
When vices more than years have mark'd him grey,
When riotous exceſs with waſteful hand
Shakes life's frail glaſs, and haſtes each ebbing ſand,
Unmindful from what ſtock he drew his birth,
Untainted with one deed of real worth,
Lothario, holding honour at no price,
Folly to folly added, vice to vice,
Wrought ſin with greedineſs, and ſought for ſhame
With greater zeal than good men ſeek for fame.
Where (reaſon left without the leaſt defence)
Laughter was mirth, obſcenity was ſenſe.
Where impudence made decency ſubmit,
Where noiſe was humour, and where whim was wit,
Where rude untemper'd licence had the merit
Of liberty, and lunacy was ſpirit,
Where the beſt things were ever held the worſt,
Lothario was, with juſtice, always firſt.
To whip a top, to knuckle down at taw,
To ſwing upon a gate, to ride a ſtraw,
To play at puſh-pin with dull brother peers,
To belch out catches in a porter's ears,
To reign the monarch of a midnight cell,
To be the gaping chairman's oracle,
Whilſt, in moſt bleſſed union, rogue and whore
Clap hands, huzza, and hiccup out, encore,
Whilſt grey authority, who ſlumbers there
In robes of watchman's fur, gives up his chair,
With midnight howl to bay th' affrighted moon,
To walk with torches thro' the ſtreets at noon,
To force plain nature from her uſual way,
Each night a vigil, and a blank each day.
To match for ſpeed one feather 'gainſt another,
To make one leg run races with his brother,
'Gainſt all the reſt to take the northern wind,
.... to ride firſt, and he to ride behind,
To coin new-fangled wagers, and to lay 'em,
Laying to loſe, and loſing not to pay 'em;
Lothario, on that ſtock which nature gives,
Without a rival ſtands, tho' .... yet lives.
When Folly (at that name, in duty bound,
Let ſubject myriads kneel, and kiſs the ground,
Whilſt they, who in the preſence upright ſtand,
Are held as rebels thro' the loyal land)

Queen

Queen every where, but moſt a queen in courts,
Sent forth her heralds, and proclaim'd her ſports,
Bade fool with fool on her behalf engage,
And prove her right to reign from age to age,
Lothario, great above the common ſize,
With all engag'd, and won from all the prize;
Her cap he wears, which from his youth he wore,
And every day deſerves it more and more.
Nor in ſuch limits reſts his ſoul confin'd;
Folly may ſhare, but can't engroſs his mind;
Vice, bold, ſubſtantial vice, puts in her claim,
And ſtamps him perfect in the books of ſhame.
Obſerve his follies well, and you will ſwear
Folly had been his firſt, his only care;
Obſerve his vices, you'll that oath diſown,
And ſwear that he was born for vice alone.
Is the ſoft nature of ſome eaſy maid,
Fond, eaſy, full of faith to be betray'd,
Muſt ſhe, to virtue loſt, be loſt to fame,
And he who wrought her guilt, declare her ſhame?
Is ſome brave friend, who, men but little known,
Deems every heart as honeſt as his own,
And, free himſelf, in others fears no guile,
To be enſnared, and ruin'd with a ſmile?
Is law to be perverted from her courſe?
Is abject fraud to league with brutal force?
Is freedom to be cruſh'd, and every ſon,
Who dares maintain her cauſe, to be undone?
Is baſe corruption, creeping through the land,
To plan, and work her ruin, underhand,
With regular approaches, ſure tho' ſlow,
Or muſt ſhe periſh by a ſingle blow?
Are kings (who truſt to ſervants, and depend
In ſervants (fond, vain thought) to find a friend)
To be abus'd, and made to draw their breath
In darkneſs thicker than the ſhades of death?
Is God's moſt holy name to be prophan'd,
His word rejected, and his laws arraign'd,
His ſervants ſcorn'd, as men who idly dream'd,
His ſervice laugh'd at, and his Son blaſphem'd?
Are debauchees in morals to preſide,
Is faith to take an atheiſt for her guide?
Is ſcience by a blockhead to be led?
Are ſtates to totter on a drunkard's head?
To anſwer all theſe purpoſes, and more,
More black than ever villain plann'd before,
Search earth, ſearch hell, the devil cannot find
An agent, like Lothario, to his mind.

Is

Is this nobility, which ſprung from kings,
Was meant to ſwell the power from whence it ſprings?
Is this the glorious produce, this the fruit,
Which nature hop'd for from ſo rich a root?
Were there but two (ſearch all the world around)
Were there but two ſuch nobles to be found,
The very name would ſink into a term
Of ſcorn, and man would rather be a worm,
Than be a lord; but nature, full of grace,
Nor meaning birth, and titles to debaſe,
Made only one, and, having made him, ſwore,
In mercy to mankind to make no more.
Nor ſtopp'd ſhe there, but like a generous friend,
The ills which error caus'd, ſhe ſtrove to mend,
And, having brought Lothario forth to view,
To ſave her credit, brought forth .... too.

To Mr. R. *laid up with a fit of the gout, by Mr. L. confin'd in the Fleet.*

THERE is a magic in ſweet ſounds
Which draws forth every thing but—pounds.
By myſtic ſong's commanding tune,
Medea could unhinge the moon.
At old Amphion's plaſtic call,
The ſtones jump'd up, and form'd a wall.
The prieſts loud horns began to blow,
Down went the walls of Jericho.
The ſailors, people not renown'd
For nice intelligence of ſound,
Chuck'd poor Arion fairly o'er,
To ſwim at leaſt nine leagues to ſhore,
Down fiddle went, and fidler—piſh!
He got a horſeback on a fiſh!
You ſee the force of muſic here,
Your dolphins have a charming ear.
Young Orpheus, whom you oft have ſeen
In playhouſe ſuit of lighteſt green,
Scarce ſweetly ſwept the whizzing wire;
When at the magic of his lyre,
From cunning trap-doors of the earth
Sprang trees of inſtantaneous birth,
While all reſponſive to his airs,
Leapt bulls, and wolves, and dancing bears.
When David ſung, what ſome folks call
(See Doctor Brown) the *Cure of Saul*,
He touch'd the monarch to the quick,
Like Orpheus when he ſooth'd old Nic.
A foaming wolf, relentleſs, fierce,
Who never heard one word of verſe,

Came ruſhing from a neighb'ring wood,
Juſt where the careleſs poet ſtood;
But † Horace (was he much to blame?)
Humm'd a ſhort ode—the wolf grew tame,
And went as empty as he came.

Strange pow'r of verſe in ancient times!
Loſt in our luckleſs land of rhimes:
All things are tending to decay,
Poor Nature's in a palſy'd way.
Now kings may *touch*, and *touch* again,
The *Royal Evil* will remain;
And modern bards, and ſcepter'd kings,
Are equally *ungifted* things.
Not all the lays we lay-men make
Can charm away the belly-ache.
Can numbers numb the twinging gout,
And bring the cripple dancing out?
Say, can I ſooth, with carol ſweet,
The Cerberus who guards the F——?
Can I, by rhime's harmonious aid,
Charm Argus *turnkeys* from their trade?
Their mind on other paſſions rolls,
They have no muſic in their ſouls.
While on her accents ſenates hung,
When rhet'ric ſpoke from Tully's tongue,
While he purſu'd his ſureſt art
To wind him into Cæſar's heart,
As if the words had pierc'd his ſoul,
The artful Cæſar dropp'd his ſcroll.
Wonders we cannot work like theſe,
Sing what you liſt, ſay what you pleaſe,
J——n will hear, yet keep his keys.

Say, will my ſong, *da capo'd* o'er,
Piano ſoft, *Andante* roar,
Though even Handel ſet the air,
Call up one tree to ſhade the *Bare?*
Though I burſt both my cheeks for ſpite,
And blow aloud from morn to night,
The trumpet, flute, and horn, and all——
The devil of a brick will fall;
And poetry like mine, I truſt,
Can neither raiſe a wall, nor cruſt.
In that looſe caſh, however ſtrong,
Who'll take the payment of a ſong?
What wolf will now forego his prey
For all that I can ſing or ſay?

* Ode XXII. Book I.

My rhimes, alas! will *catch no fish*,
To ſwim in ſauce upon my diſh;
And for *theſe* notes, however clear,
Will the next ‡ Dolphin give me beer?
Alas! my friend, how vain our boaſt!
The ancients ſtill muſt *rule the roaſt*:
They could raiſe walls by muſic's ſpell,
Bring trees from earth, and wives from hell;
But fruitleſs we may pipe and thrum,
Nor wives, nor trees, nor walls will come.
Though you, like Phœbus, ſweetly ſing,
Though I ſhould ſoar on Pindar's wing,
Yet neither tune nor words avail;
The gout's a gout, a jail's a jail.
What is to us, or proſe or rhime,
My meaſur'd verſe, your meaſur'd time?
Have we not loſt all uſe of *feet*,
You in the *Gout*, I in the *F*———?

The DYING SAINT.

I.

WHEN life's tempeſtuous ſtorms are o'er;
How calm he meets the friendly ſhore,
Who liv'd averſe to ſin,
Such peace on virtue's path attends,
That where the ſinner's pleaſure ends,
The good man's joys begin.

II.

See ſmiling patience ſmooth his brow!
See bending angels downward bow!
To lift his ſoul on high;
While eager for the bleſt abode,
He joins with them to praiſe the God
Who taught him how to die.

III.

The horrors of the grave and hell,
Thoſe horrors which the wicked feel,
In vain their gloom diſplay;
For he who bids yon comet burn,
Or makes the night deſcend, can turn
Their darkneſs into day.

‡ *The* Dolphin, *a publick houſe in* Ludgate-ſtreet.

IV.

No ſorrow drowns his lifted eyes,
No horror wreſts the ſtruggling ſighs,
As from the ſinner's breaſt:
His God, the God of peace and love,
Pours kindly ſolace from above,
And heals his ſoul with reſt.

V.

O grant, my Saviour, and my friend,
Such joys may gild my peaceful end,
And calm my evening cloſe;
While loos'd from every earthly tie,
With ſteddy confidence I fly
To him from whence I roſe.

The LIBERTINE REPULSED.

HENCE *Bellmour*, perfidious! this inſtant retire,
No further entreaties employ,
Nor meanly pretend any more to admire,
What barely you wiſh to deſtroy.

Say, youth, muſt I madly ruſh on upon ſhame,
If a traitor but artfully ſighs!
And eternally part with my honour and fame
For a compliment paid to my eyes?

If a flame all diſhoneſt be vilely profeſt,
Thro' tenderneſs muſt I incline,
And ſeek to indulge the repoſe of a breaſt,
That would plant endleſs tortures in mine!

No, *Belmour*—a paſſion I can't but deſpiſe,
Shall never find way to my ears;
Nor the man meet a glance of regard from theſe eyes,
That would drench them for ever in tears.

Can the lover who thinks, nay, who wiſhes me baſe,
Expect that I e'er ſhould be kind?
Or atone with a paltry addreſs to my face,
For the injury done to my mind?

Hence, *Belmour*, this inſtant, and ceaſe every dream,
Which your hope ſaw ſo fooliſhly born;
Nor vainly imagine to gain my eſteem,
By deſerving my hate and my ſcorn.

BENE-

BENEVOLENCE. *An* ODE.

Inſcribed to my Friends.

By James Woodhouſe, *a Journeyman Shoemaker.*

LET others boaſt Palladian ſkill
The ſculptur'd dome to raiſe;
To ſcoop the vale, to ſwell the hill,
Or lead the ſmooth, meand'ring rill
In ever-varying maze;
To ſtrike the lyre
With Homer's fire,
Or Sappho's tender art;
Or Handel's notes with ſweeter ſtrains inſpire;
O'er Phidias' chiſſel to preſide,
Or Titian's glowing pencil guide
Through ev'ry living part.
Ah! what avails it thus to ſhine,
By ev'ry art refin'd;
Except BENEVOLENCE combine
To humanize the mind;
The Parian floor,
Or vivid cieling, freſco'd o'er,
With glaring charms the gazing eye may fire;
Yet may their lords, like ſtatues cold,
Devoid of ſympathy, behold
Fair worth with penury depreſs'd,
Or indigence, expire;
Nor ever know the nobleſt uſe of gold.
'Tis yours, with ſympathetic breaſt;
To ſtop the riſing ſigh,
And wipe the tearful eye,
Nor let repining merit ſue unbleſt;
This is a more applauſive taſte
Than ſpending wealth
In gorgeous waſte,
Or with dire luxury deſtroying health;
It ſweetens life with ev'ry virtuous joy,
And wings the conſcious hours with gladneſs as they fly.

PROLOGUE *to the* AUTHOR.

SEvere their taſk, who in this critic age,
With freſh materials furniſh out the ſtage!
Not that our fathers drain'd the comic ſtore;
Freſh characters ſpring up as heretofore—
Nature with novelty does ſtill abound;
On every ſide freſh follies may be found.
But then the taſte of every gueſt to hit,
To pleaſe at once the gall'ry, box, and pit,
Requires at leaſt—no common ſhare of wit.
Thoſe who adorn the orb of higher life,
Demand the lively rake, or modiſh wife;
Whilſt they, who in a lower circle move,
Yawn at their wit, and ſlumber at their love.
If light, low mirth employs the comic ſcene,
Such mirth as drives from vulgar minds the ſpleen;
The poliſh'd critic damns the wretched ſtuff,
And cries—"'twill pleaſe the gall'ries well enough."
Such jarring judgments who can reconcile,
Since ſops will frown, where humble traders ſmile?
To daſh the poet's ineffectual claim,
And quench his thirſt for univerſal fame,
The Grecian fabuliſt, in moral lay,
Has thus addreſs'd the writers of this day.
Once on a time, a ſon and ſire, we're told,
The ſtripling tender, and the father old,
Purchas'd a jack-aſs at a country fair,
To eaſe their limbs and hawk about their ware:
But as the ſluggiſh animal was weak,
They fear'd, if both ſhould mount, his back would break:
Up gets the boy; the father leads the aſs,
And through the gazing crowd attempt to paſs.
Forth from the throng the grey-beards hobble out,
And hail the cavalcade with feeble ſhout.
"This the reſpect to reverend age you ſhew?
And this the duty you to parents owe?
He beats the hoof; and you are ſet aſtride;
Sirrah! get down, and let your father ride."
As Grecian lads were ſeldom void of grace,
The decent, duteous youth, reſign'd his place.
Then a freſh murmur through the rabble ran;
Boys, girls, wives, widows, all attack the man.
"Sure never was brute beaſt ſo void of nature!
Have you no pity for the pretty creature?

To

To your own baby can you be unkind ?
Here— *Suke*, *Bill*, *Betty*,—put the child behind."
Old *Dapple* next the clowns compaſſion claim'd ;
" 'Tis wonderment, them boobies ben't aſham'd.
Two at a time upon a poor dumb beaſt !
They might as well have carry'd he at leaſt."
The pair, ſtill pliant to the partial voice,
Diſmount and bear the aſs—Then what a noiſe !—
Huzzas—loud laughs, low gibe, and bitter joke,
From the yet ſilent ſire, theſe words provoke ;
" Proceed, my boy, nor heed their farther call,
Vain his attempt, who ſtrives to pleaſe them all !"

The WAY *to be* WISE:

Imitated from La Fontaine.

POOR Jenny, am'rous, young, and gay,
Having by man been led aſtray,
To nunn'ry dark retir'd ;
There liv'd, and look'd ſo like a maid,
So ſeldom eat, ſo often pray'd,
She was by all admir'd.

The lady abbeſs oft would cry,
If any ſiſter trod awry,
Or prov'd an idle ſlattern :
" See wiſe and pious Mrs. Jane ;
" A life ſo ſtrict, ſo grave a mien,
" Is ſure a worthy pattern."

A pert young ſlut at length replies,
" Experience, madam, makes folks wiſe,
" 'Tis that has made her ſuch ;
" And we, poor ſouls, no doubt, ſhould be
" As pious and as wiſe as ſhe,
" If we had ſeen as much."

A Madame De La Condamine, le Lendemain de ſes Noces.

D'Aurore and de Titon vous connoiſſez l' Hiſtoire ?
Nôtre Hymen en rappelle adjourd'hui la Memoire ;

Mais de mon ſort Titon ſeroit jaloux,
Que ſes Liens ſont diffrens dès nôtres!
L' Aurore entre ſes bras vit vieillir ſon Epoux,
Et je rajeunis dans les vôtres.

M. De La Condamine.

IMITATED.

M. De La Condamine to his Lady, the Morning after their Wedding.

THUS match'd, of old, Tithonus and Aurora;
I and Tithonus both old fellows;
His wife like mine, more beautiful than Flora;
Yet I ſhould make Tithonus jealous.

Though ſtrong his love, and great her charms,
Their union was leſs bleſt than our's:
Aurora's ſpouſe grew older in her arms.
You make me young again in your's.

Sir William Young *to his Lady, on having one of his eyes beat out.*

HOW vain are all the joys of man,
By nature born to certain ſorrow,
Since none, not even the wiſeſt, can
Inſure the pleaſures of to-morrow?

Theſe eyes, ſo late my envied boaſt,
By Celia priz'd above all other,
See one, alas! for ever loſt,
Its fellow weeping for its brother.

Yet ſtill I'm bleſt while one remains,
For viewing lovely Celia's beauty,
Her looks ſtill eaſe acuteſt pains,
With tendereſt love, and cheerful duty.

Had I for her in battle ſtrove,
The fatal blow I'd borne with pleaſure.
And ſtill, to prove my conſtant love,
With joy I'd loſe my ſingle treaſure.

Even then the beauties of her mind
Would amply bleſs her faithful lover.

He

He muſt be deaf as well as blind,
Who can't my Celia's charms diſcover.

Even then I'd find one ſolid bliſs,
Which heaven to me alone diſpenſes;
Tho' deaf and blind, her balmy kiſs
Would raviſh the remaining ſenſes.

Epitaphe de REGNIER. *Faite per lui meſme.*

JAI veſcu ſans nul penſement,
Me laiſſant aller doucement
A la bonne loy naturelle;
Et je m'eſtonne fort pourquoy
La mort oſa ſonger à moy,
Qui ne ſongeay jamais en elle

REGNIER's *Epitaph. Made by himſelf.*

GAyly I liv'd as eaſe and nature taught,
And ſpent my little life without a thought;
And am amaz'd that death, that tyrant grim,
Should think of me, who never thought of him.

Lines ſtuck on the Temple Gate.

AS by the Templars holds you go,
The *horſe* and *lamb*, diſplay'd
In emblematic figures, ſhew
Their merits of their trade.

That clients may infer from thence
How juſt is their profeſſion,
The *lamb* ſets forth their *innocence*,
The *horſe* their *expedition*.

O happy *Britons!* happy iſle!
Let foreign nations ſay,
Where you get juſtice without guile,
And law without delay.

EPIGRAM *on the* NEW PAVEMENT.

THE new Scottiſh pavement is worthy of praiſe,
We're indebted to Scotland, for *mending our ways*;
But, what we can never forgive 'em, ſome ſay,
Is, that they have taken our *poſts* all away.

From the St. JAMES's MAGAZINE.

The Candle and Snuffers. A Fable. By Robert Lloyd, M. A.

"NO author ever ſpar'd a brother:
"Wits are game cocks to one another."
But no antipathy ſo ſtrong,
Which acts ſo fiercely, laſts ſo long,
As that which rages in the breaſt
Of *critic*, and of *wit* profeſt:
When, eager for ſome bold emprize,
Wit, Titan-like, affects the ſkies,
When, full of energy divine,
The mighty dupe of all the nine,
Bids his kite ſoar on paper wing,
The critic comes, and cuts the ſtring;
Hence dire contention often grows
'Twixt man of verſe, and man of proſe;
While proſe-man deems the verſe-man fool,
And meaſures wit by line and rule,
And, as he lops off fancy's limb,
Turns executioner of whim;
While Genius, which too oft diſdains
To bear e'en honourable chains,
(Such as a ſheriff's ſelf might wear,
Or grace the wiſdom of a may'r,)
Turns rebel to dame REASON's throne,
And holds no judgment like his own.
Yet while they ſpatter mutual dirt,
In idle threats, that cannot hurt,
Methinks they waſte a deal of time,
Both fool in proſe, and fool in rhime,
And when the angry bard exclaims,
And calls a thouſand paultry names,
He doth his critic mighty wrong,
And hurts the dignity of ſong.
The prefatory matter paſt,
The tale or ſtory comes at laſt.

A can-

A candle ſtuck in flaring ſtate
Within the nozel of French plate,
Tow'ring aloft with ſmoaky light,
The ſnuff and flame of wond'rous height,
(For, virgin yet of amputation,
No force had check'd its inclination.)
Sullen addreſs'd with conſcious pride,
The dormant ſnuffers at his ſide.
" Mean vulgar tools, whoſe envious aim
" Strikes at the vitals of my flame,
" Your rude aſſaults ſhall hurt no more,
" See how my beams triumphant ſoar!
" See how I gayly blaze alone.
" With ſtrength, with luſtre all my own."
" Luſtre, good Sir!" the ſnuffers cried,
" Alas! how ignorant is pride!
" Thy light which wavers round the room,
" Shews as the counterfeit of gloom,
" Thy ſnuff which idly tow'rs ſo high
" Will waſte thy eſſence by and by,
" Which, as I prize thy luſtre dear,
" I fain would lop, to make thee clear.
" Boaſt not, old friend, thy random rays,
" Thy waſting ſtrength, and quiv'ring blaze,
" You ſhine but as a beggar's link,
" To burn away, and die in ſtink,
" No merit waits unſteady light,
" You muſt burn *true* as well as *bright*."

Poets like candles all are puffers,
And *critics* are the candle ſnuffers.

An

An Account of Books publiſhed in 1764.

An hiſtorical and chronological deduction of the origin of commerce, from the earlieſt accounts to the preſent time, &c. In two volumes, Folio. London.

A Full and judicious hiſtory of the riſe and progreſs of commerce has been long deſired, and, indeed, much wanted. Every thing, which has hitherto appeared upon that ſubject, has been either very imperfect, or very erroneous, or both. Yet nothing can afford a more rational object of ſtudy and attention, for the uſes either of ſpeculative or active life. Trade is ſo much influenced by the manners of mankind, as well as ſo intimately connected with their policy and government, that it cannot fail of furniſhing no leſs valuable lights for the hiſtory of the human mind in different ages and countries, than for advancing the riches and proſperity of nations. Mr. Anderſon has undertaken a very great work; and what might have ſeemed too much for the labours of a ſingle hand. The books and records compared by him are almoſt innumerable. The objects it comprehends are in a manner infinite. Every thing which concerns commerce in all its branches, and manufacture in all its articles, even to the minuteſt details in both; every thing which could be collected concerning corporations, concerning trading and banking ſocieties; every thing which relates to public and private credit; to funds and ſtocks; whatever tends to illuſtrate the value of money and of proviſions, and the price of labour; the comparative population at different periods; the origin of all improvements in arts of uſe or ornament, form the extenſive materials of this curious and intereſting work. It muſt be obſerved, however, that, though he runs over the whole hiſtory of commerce ancient and modern, yet he labours chiefly that of the commerce of Europe; and in Europe principally attaches himſelf to the affairs of Great Britain. The author has arranged theſe materials, vaſt as they are, in a clear and ſatisfactory chronological order; and has interſperſed them with many ſenſible reaſonings and judicious reflections.

With regard to the ſtyle of this work, it is, as might be expected in a work of this kind, negligent. It has this defect; but it is the ſmalleſt ſuch a work can have. Some few errors, too, in dates and facts, of which the author was himſelf conſcious, may be obſerved; but ought to be overlooked as unavoidable in ſuch a performance. He has finiſhed the whole with an ample chronological index, which is at the ſame time a table of reference,

ference, and an abridgement of the work. This part will prove particularly satisfactory to the reader.

Extracts can give but an imperfect idea of works of this extent. We shall, however, insert two; the first, his account of the genius and manners of the 14th century; the second, an account of the application of the magnet to navigation.

"*Character of the fourteenth Century.*

The character of this fourteenth century is of much greater importance to mankind than any, or perhaps than all, the preceding ones, considered in a purely mercantile sense. Great improvements are effected in naval commerce throughout the greatest part of Europe, and in the dimensions of shipping, more especially in Italy, Spain, the Hanse-towns, and the Netherlands, whereby gradual approaches were making towards constituting the remarkable difference which has since so eminently appeared between nations, in proportion to their greater or lesser cultivation of foreign commerce, and of manufactures, fisheries, mines, and other commercial improvements. Yet Mr. Rymer, in the dedication to the late queen Anne of his IIId Tome of the Fœdera, tells her very truly, "that these were times of "great struggle and disorder all "Europe over, and the darkest "period of times." And the supposed royal author of the memoirs of the house of Brandeburg speaks much to the same effect, viz. "That ignorance was at its "highest pitch in this and the "next succeeding century." The lands of England, it is true, still continued to be extremely cheap, of which some very memorable instances are exhibited, chiefly owing to there being as yet but very few purchasers: yet the rate of living, and the prices of most of the necessaries of life, were considerably risen since the beginning of the preceding century. The great king Edward III. of England, attentively observing the vast benefits accruing to the Netherlands from their extensive woollen manufacture, the main material whereof they owed chiefly, if not solely, to his own kingdom; viewing also the beauty, populousness, opulence, and strength of their cities, the neatness and wealth even of their villages, whilst those of his kingdom were mostly poor, ill-built, small, and thin of people; and that the province of Flanders in particular was thereby become so opulent and potent, as to be a dangerous neighbour to England, more especially when siding with France; such considerations were more than sufficient to determine him, to attempt the removal of every obstacle for attaining the like benefits to himself and his people.

Had this prince solely confined himself to the pursuit of the woollen manufacture, that great point would have been sooner and more effectually accomplished; but his earnest pursuit of the conquest of France occasioned no small suspension of the other point, by its depriving his kingdom of much wealth and people. Yet although that towering project proved abortive, and that, in the end, he lived long enough to see all his large

large conqueſts in France raviſhed from him, the ſingle town of Calais only excepted, [and a truly happy ſight it was, or ought to have been, for the Engliſh nation, had they then as clearly perceived, as we at preſent do, the infinite miſchief which would have been the inevitable conſequence of his ſaid ſucceſs;] he, however, alſo lived long enough, to ſee his ſaid more ſalutary ſcheme of the woollen manufacture generally eſtabliſhed throughout England, though ſince gradually much improved. He alſo enacted more and better laws for the advancement of commerce than all his predeceſſors had done. The ſilver coins of the two ſiſter-nations of England and Scotland having been the ſame in weight, value, figure, and denomination, from time immemorial, down to the middle of this century, thereby they mutually and freely circulated in both kingdoms to that period; but the Scots beginning now firſt to leſſen the intrinſic value of theirs, ſtill preſerving the old denominations, about that period, England was at length obliged totally to prohibit their paſſing in payment. The livre, or pound of France, which originally weighed twelve ounces of ſilver, or a pound troy, was, in this century, ſunk to the ſixth part of that weight, or to the ſixth part of a pound ſterling. Although gold coins had been early in uſe amongſt the ancient Aſiatics, Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans, yet, from the overthrow of the weſtern Roman empire, until near the cloſe of the laſt, or the beginning of this XIVth. century, we do not find any gold coins in uſe, even in the free ſtates of Italy, who, doubtleſs, had them the firſt of any part of Europe weſt of the Greek empire.—In England, the firſt gold coins were not ſtruck till the year 1344.—In the ſame country, foreign merchants were ſtill hardly and impoliticly treated, by means of the excluſive charters granted to London and other cities and towns.—The ports of the eaſtern coaſt of England had, by this time, fallen into a conſiderable trade to and with the Hanſe-towns of Germany, and alſo to thoſe of Pruſſia and Livonia, then the fartheſt vogages made by Engliſhmen, even long before England reſorted to the countries within the Mediterranean ſea.—Next after London, the city of Briſtol made the greateſt figure of any in England in commerce and ſhipping in all this century, and probably long before, as well as it has done ever ſince, as partly appears from their making the higheſt loans of money to the crown of any place, London excepted. This century, moreover, furniſhes us with the moſt diſtinct account of the full quota of the cinque-ports maritime ſervice to the crown in time of war.—Many improvements are made in Europe; and particularly in England, clocks are firſt brought thither, law-pleadings firſt ordained to be in the Engliſh language, &c. The iſlands of the Madeira, and of the Canaries, are fully diſcovered and ſettled, both which were ſoon after planted with vines and ſugar-canes; and the ſaid iſlands have been extremely aſſiſting to the commerce of the ſeveral trading nations of Europe, both by their product and their commodious ſituation. So that, did we think ourſelves obliged to

aſcertain preciſely a period to the times called the middle-ages, we might, poſſibly, with ſome reaſon, fix on the latter end of the reign of the great king Edward III. —Scotland, we find, had commerce with the Netherlands from the very commencement of this century, and probably much farther back.—The invention of the gilling and pickling of herrings, at the cloſe of this century, as ſtill in uſe, has proved a great addition to the commerce of Europe, and more particularly to the Hollanders; and the inundation of the Texel happening very near that period, afforded means for Amſterdam to take its firſt great commercial flight, by engroſſing the greateſt part of the fiſhing, and of the Baltic trades. —Although the Hanſe-towns ſtill enjoyed, throughout all this century, a great and flouriſhing commerce, yet the Netherland cities, and moſt eſpecially the great and opulent city of Bruges, began now to eclipſe the Hanſeatic ones both in commerce and opulence. —In Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, their famous queen Margaret is ſaid to have made ſuch regulations, as laid the foundations for future commerce: It was in her reign that we firſt meet with the mention in hiſtory of the copper-mines of Sweden; which laſt-named country came very late into any degree of foreign commerce.—Spain (by which word hiſtorians, in thoſe times, moſt generally meant the monarchy of Caſtile, and yet at other times the whole country, comprehending both modern Spain and Portugal) had ſome foreign commerce carried on by large ſhips, called carricks, long before France had any ſuch, or indeed any other nation of the weſt, but the free cities of Italy and the Hanſe-towns. In concluſion, this century made ſundry great improvements in commerce, manufactures, and navigation, and has therefore required more room in our work than any one preceding century. We may alſo remark, that, during the conteſts in the courſe of this century between the anti-popes, as alſo in the ſtruggles between the pretenders to the imperial throne, Italy was in a continual flame with civil broils, ſo that in ſundry parts thereof, (according to Petavius and others) many princes and great men aſſumed to themſelves the rule and government of cities; many of whom pope Benedict XII. legitimated as princes of the ſame, that they might be ready and willing to help and defend him againſt Lewis of Bavaria the emperor, elected by one party of the German princes, he favouring the pretenſions of Frederick of Auſtria to the imperial throne."

The hiſtory of the firſt diſcovery of the polarity of the magnet, and its application to navigation, is curious.

"Moſt authors fix on the year 1302 for the date of the incomparable invention, or diſcovery, of the mariners compaſs, or magnetic needle, for the direction of ſhips at ſea. The inventor was Flavio de Gioia, a native of Amalphi, an ancient commercial city in the kingdom of Naples; in commemoration whereof, this verſe of one Anthony of Palermo is recorded by the Neapolitan hiſtorians, viz.

"*Prima dedit Nautis uſum Magnetis* Amalphis."

That

That is to ſay, *That as the Poles of the magnet, or loadſtone, anſwered to the Poles of the World, it could alſo communicate that wonderful property to an iron needle, placed on a chart, marking the points of the World.*

The power of the magnet to attract iron was known to the ancients, and is mentioned by Plato, Ariſtotle, and Pliny; but its directive power, *to cauſe a piece of iron touched with it to point north and ſouth*, is undoubtedly of a later date.

Goropius (ſays Moriſotus) will have the inventors of this wonderful [*Pixis nautica*] compaſs to be either Danes or Germans, becauſe the thirty-two points on it are written and pronounced in the Dutch or Teutonic language, by all nations uſing the ſea; though this may, perhaps, only prove the improvement of the compaſs by the Teutonics. For all are agreed, that at the firſt there were only the *four cardinal points*, or at moſt (as others) eight points named on the compaſs, which eight winds had been ſo named by Charlemain, as has been obſerved under the year 790; and that emperor ſtill uſing the Teutonic tongue, (though with ſome alteration from its original dialect) from thence thoſe of Bruges might naturally continue the other twenty-four points in the ſame language, as the bringing them to thirty-two points is uſually aſcribed (ſays Verſtegan, &c.) to the people of Bruges in Flanders, where the Teutonic dialect is ſtill in uſe. Others (continues Moriſotus) aſcribe the diſcovery of the compaſs to Marco Polo of Venice, who, on his return from China about the year 1260, communicated that ſecret to the Italians. Others have formerly thought, that what is called *Verſoria* by Plautus was the magnetic needle, and was conſequently known to the ancients; but the learned ſeem now agreed, that this *Verſoria* was nothing more than a rope which turned the ſail about.

There are again two other Frenchmen, viz. Mezeray and monſ. Huet, (biſhop of Avranches) who will only allow Flavio the honour of having rendered the compaſs more perfect and practicable; and ſay, it muſt needs be more ancient, as they find mention of it, or of ſomething reſembling it, in ſundry authors prior to this period. Biſhop Huet ſeems poſitive, that it was in uſe by the French pilots above forty years before Marco Polo's time, as appears (ſays he) from ſome verſes of Guyot de Provins, a French poet, mentioned by Fauchet, who lived about the year 1200. Notwithſtanding all which, the general conſent of authors gives it for this ſame Flavio of Amalphi, who, according to Abraham Ortelius and others, uſed it only for the eight principal winds or points, till, as above, it was, by thoſe of Bruges, improved to thirty-two points. Neither, indeed, does this excellent invention ſeem to have been generally known and uſed, even long after Flavio's time, as appears too plainly from the Portugueſe creeping along the ſhores, even ſo late as their firſt diſcoveries on the weſt coaſts of Africa in the fifteenth century: yet the Portugueſe ought to have the honour

nour and juſtice done them to acknowledge, that the uſe of the aſtrolabe, the tables of declination, with other aſtronomical and arithmetical rules, applicable to navigation, were their inventions; and it is highly probable too, that the ſea-charts, made by Columbus's brother in England, were their invention alſo. It is true, the Engliſh pretend not to the invention of the compaſs, as ſeveral other nations have done, yet they are ſaid to be the inventors of the moſt convenient method of ſuſpending the box which contains the magnetic needle, ſo as to keep it always horizontal. The variation of the needle, or its declination from the true north point, was diſcovered by Sebaſtian Cabot, anno 1500. And the inclination, or dipping of that needle, when hung ſo as to play vertically to a point beneath the horizon, was firſt diſcovered by Robert Norman, an Engliſhman, anno 1765, as have been many other leſſer improvements in the inſtruments for navigation by our nation; neither ought we by any means to forget the lord Napier's diſcovery of logarithms, ſo uſeful in our arithmetical operations for nautical as well as other purpoſes. Laſtly, the *variation of the variation*, or the different declinations of that needle at different times, in the ſame place, was firſt diſcovered by our countryman Gellibrand, about the year 1634; though ſome will have Gaſſendus to have before diſcovered it. So much ſeemed neceſſary to be ſaid on this incomparable invention, and on ſome of the other nautical improvements, which were, as one may ſay, only neceſſary conſequences of its invention. Endleſs are the encomiums juſtly beſtowed by all maritime nations on this excellent inſtrument, the *mariners compaſs*, for the benefit of navigation and commerce.

It ſet every maritime nation upon improvements or diſcoveries, whereby things, utterly unknown before, were continually adding to the more perfect accompliſhment of it. Nothing can make the contraſt ſtronger, than to view and compare the timorous coaſting of the old navigators, who ſeldom durſt venture out of ſight of the land, (and generally made a voyage laſt three years, which now can be *much more ſafely* performed in three months) with the exactneſs which, in theſe times, a ſhip (for inſtance) can ſail from the Lizard point in Cornwall, and directly make or arrive at one of the ſmall iſles of the Azores, in the Atlantic ocean, far diſtant from any land; and though in the darkeſt weather, deprived of the comfort and uſe of the heavenly luminaries, and of every other mark from heaven, earth, or ſea, for his guide, the modern navigator ſecurely ſails on, generally knowing exactly enough by his reckoning where he is, and how far diſtant from his intended port.

By the help of this noble inſtrument it was that the Spaniards made their diſcoveries of a new weſtern world, the Portugeſe the way by ſea to India and China, and the Engliſh and Dutch the ſeveral uſeful diſcoveries towards the north pole; all which, but for the compaſs, would have probably ſtill remained unknown; and all the wealth acquired from ſuch

such discoveries, and probably, too, most of the knowledge acquired in consequence thereof, had likewise never been discovered but for it."

A history of the military Transactions of the British nation in Indostan, from the year 1745. *To which is prefixed a dissertation on the establishments made by Mahomedan conquerors in Indostan. One Volume, Quarto. London.*

THE manners and characters of the various people, who inhabit the great empire of Indostan; the peculiarities of their religion and their policy; and the astonishing events which have lately happened in that part of the world, have rendered the history of the wars in India an object of general curiosity. The great interest we have still in that empire, always as a trading, lately as a conquering people, will make a proper narrative of our former proceedings there a matter of the most useful instruction. The author of this work has gratified this curiosity, and communicated this instruction. No historian seems to have been more perfectly informed of the subject on which he has undertaken to write; and very few have possessed more fully the talent of impressing it in the clearest and most vivid manner on the imagination and understanding of his reader. In this work the events are fully prepared; the characters strongly delineated; and the situations well described. It is no uncommon thing to find in ordinary writers, more of the confusion than of the life and spirit of the fight, in their descriptions of an engagement. But nothing can be more clear and satisfactory than the whole detail of military transactions, which we find in this writer. Whether the march or the retreat, the attack or the defence, the encampment or the battle, every thing is drawn with accuracy and precision, in great detail, but without any thing tedious. In these particulars, Polybius will be scarcely thought to exceed him.

It must be observed, likewise, to his honour, that there reigns through the whole work an air of disinterestedness, and of freedom from all passion and prejudice, public or private. The Frenchman, who acts gallantly or wisely, finds as much justice done to his actions and his conduct, as any of the author's countrymen. The same impartiality seems to have been observed with regard to all personal connections. This volume does not carry the war further than 1755. It were to be wished that the author may finish what he has begun in so promising a manner.

It is difficult to extract from this work; but in order to give the reader an idea of the author's style of narrative, we present him with the following.

"Of this great dominion, (thirty nabopships) Murzafa-jing, (Nazir-jing, his predecessor, having been murdered by a conspiracy of the nobles supported by the French) from a prisoner in irons and condemned to death, saw himself in the revolution of a few hours almost absolute lord, and with the prospect of maintaining possession of it.

On

On the 15th of December at night he came to the gates with a numerous and ſplendid attendance, amongſt which were moſt of the principal lords of his court; he was received by Mr. Dupleix and Chunda-ſaheb in a tent without the city; and diſcovered great emotions of joy in this interview. It was intended, in deference to his rank, that he ſhould have entered the town on his elephant; but the animal was too large to paſs under the beam to which the draw-bridge was ſuſpended; whereupon he politely deſired to go in the ſame palankin with Mr. Dupleix to the palace; here they had a private conference, in which he explained the difficulties he lay under from the pretenſions of the Pitan nabobs, and afterwards retired to the houſe appointed for his reception, where he was expected with impatience by his mother, his wife, and his ſon.

The next day the three Pitan nabobs came into the town, and deſired Mr. Dupleix to determine what rewards they ſhould receive for the ſervices they had rendered; they demanded, that the arrears of tribute, which they had not paid for three years, ſhould be remitted; that the countries which they governed, together with ſeveral augmentations of territory they now demanded, ſhould in future be exempted from tribute to the Mogul government; and that one half of the riches found in Nazir-jing's treaſury ſhould be delivered to them.

It was known that all the lords of Murzafa-jing's court waited to meaſure their demands by the conceſſions which he ſhould make to the Pitan nabobs; if thoſe obtained all they aſked, the whole of his dominion would ſcarcely ſuffice to ſatisfy the other claimants in the ſame proportion; and, on the other hand, if they were not ſatisfied, it was much to be apprehended that they would revolt; Mr. Dupleix therefore poſtponed all other conſiderations to this important diſcuſſion, and conferred with the Pitans for ſeveral days ſucceſſively. He acknowledged the great obligations Murzafa-jing lay under to them for their conduct in the revolution; but inſiſted that he himſelf had contributed as much to it as they, and was therefore intitled to as great rewards; and that if ſuch conceſſions were extorted, the ſoubah would no longer be able to maintain the dignity he had acquired. Intending therefore to ſet the example of moderation, he, in the laſt conference, told them, that he ſhould relinquiſh his own pretenſions to any ſhare of the treaſures, or to any other advantages which might diſtreſs the affairs of Murzafa-jing. The Pitans finding him determined to ſupport the cauſe of that prince at all events, agreed amongſt themſelves to appear ſatisfied with the terms he preſcribed: theſe were, that the governments ſhould be augmented by ſome diſtricts much leſs than thoſe they demanded; that their private revenues ſhould be increaſed by the addition of ſome lands belonging to the crown given to them in farm at low rates; and that the half of the money found in Nazir-jing's treaſury ſhould be di-

vided amongſt them; but the jewels were reſerved to Murzafajing.

This agreement was ſigned by the nabobs, who likewiſe took on the Alcoran an oath of allegiance to the ſoubah; declaring at the ſame time that Nizam-al-muluck himſelf had never been able to obtain from them this mark of ſubmiſſion; and he on his part ſwore to protect them whilſt they remained faithful.

All diſſentions being now in appearance reconciled, feaſts and entertainments enſued, in which Mr. Dupleix ſpared no expence to raiſe in his gueſts a high opinion of the grandeur of his nation, by the ſplendour with which he affected to repreſent his monarch. Amidſt theſe rejoicings was performed the ceremony of inſtalling the ſoubah in the throne of the Decan. It was very pompous; and Mr. Dupleix appeared, next to the ſoubah, the principal actor in it; for in the dreſs of a Mahomedan lord of Indoſtan, with which the prince himſelf had cloathed him, he was the firſt who paid homage; after which he was declared governor for the Mogul of all the countries lying to the ſouth of the river Kriſtna; that is, of a territory little leſs than France itſelf; he likewiſe received the title of munſub, or commander of 7,000 horſe, with the permiſſion of placing amongſt his enſigns, that of the fiſh; neither of which diſtinctions is ever granted excepting to perſons of the firſt note in the empire. It was ordered, that no money ſhould be current in the Carnatic, but ſuch as was coined at Pondicherry; and that the Mogul's revenues from all the countries of which Mr. Dupleix was now appointed vicegerent ſhould be remitted to him, who was to account for them to the ſoubah; and Chundaſaheb was declared nabob of Arcot and its dependencies, under the authority of Mr. Dupleix. All the Mogul and Indian lords paid homage, and made preſents; penſions, titles of honour, and governments, were beſtowed on thoſe who had aſſiſted in the revolution, or had otherwiſe merited favour; but he granted none of theſe to any, but ſuch as preſented requeſts ſigned by the hand of Mr. Dupleix.

The immediate advantages ariſing to the French Eaſt India company by theſe conceſſions, were the poſſeſſion of a territory near Pondicherry, which produced annually 96,000 rupees; of that near Karical in the kingdom of Tanjore, valued at 106,000; and the city of Maſulipatnam with its dependencies, of which the yearly income amounted to 144,000 rupees; in all, a revenue of 38,000 pounds ſterling, according to the accounts publiſhed by the French, which there is reaſon to believe are greatly extenuated. But theſe advantages were ſmall in compariſon of thoſe which Mr. Dupleix expected to obtain from the extenſive authority with which he was now inveſted; and although not one of theſe grants could, according to the conſtitution of the Mogul empire, be of any validity, unleſs confirmed by the emperor, he, without ſcruple,

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assumed them as lawful acquisitions; it is certain that, imperfect as they were, they served greatly to raise the reputation of his importance in the Carnatic, where the soubah of the southern provinces is more respected than the great Mogul himself. Even Mahomed-ally appeared to be confounded by these concessions; and from Tritchanopoly, to which place he had escaped with great difficulty, impowered the Morratoe, Raja Janagi, to treat with Mr. Dupleix for the surrender of the city, and offered, as the French affirm with great confidence in more than one memoir, to relinquish his pretensions to the nabobship of Arcot, provided Murzafa-jing would give him some other government in the territory of Gol-kondah, and leave him in possession of his treasures, without demanding any account of his father An'war-adean Khan's administration. Mr. Dupleix agreed to these terms, and imagined that they would very soon be carried into execution; so that nothing now retarded the departure of Murzafa-jing to Gol-kondah and Aureng-abad, where his presence became every day more necessary. As the power of Mr. Dupleix depended on the preservation of this prince, whose government in a country subject to such sudden revolutions, probably would not be free from commotions, he proposed that a body of French troops should accompany him until he was firmly established in the subahship; and from experience of the services they were capable of rendering, this offer was accepted without hesitation.

The treasures of Nazir-jing were computed at two millions sterling, and the jewels at 500,000 pounds; in the partition of this wealth, the private fortune of Mr. Dupleix was not forgot, notwithstanding the offer he had made in the conference with the Pitan nabobs to relinquish all pretensions to any private advantage by the revolution; for, besides many valuable jewels, it is said, that he received 200,000 pounds in money. Murzafa-jing gave 50,000 pounds to be divided among the officers and troops who had fought at the battle of Gingee, and paid 50,000 more into the treasury of the French company, for the expences they had incurred in the war. The long experience of Shanavaz Khan in the administration of the Decan rendering his knowledge necessary to the instruction of a new regency, he was invited by Murzafa-jing to enter into his service, and came from Chittaput and made his submission.

Mr. Dupleix and Murzafa-jing separated with professions of mutual gratitude and attachment, and the army left the neighbourhood of Pondicherry on the fourth of January; the French detachment was commanded by Mr. Bussy, and consisted of 300 Europeans and 2000 Seapoys with ten field pieces. The march was continued without interruption until the latter end of the month, when they arrived in the territory of Cudapa, about sixty leagues from Pondicherry. There some straggling horsemen quarrelled with the inhabitants of a village, and, with the usual licentiousness

of the cavalry of Indoſtan, ſet fire not only to that, but likewiſe to two or three other villages in the neighbourhood. The nabob of Cudapa, pretending to be greatly exaſperated by this outrage, ordered a body of his troops to revenge it, by attacking the rear-guard of Murzafa-jing's diviſion. A ſkirmiſh enſued, and the troops of Cudapa overpowered by numbers, retreated to their main body. Their attack, whether by chance or deſign is uncertain, had been directed againſt that part of the army which eſcorted the women; ſo that this defiance was aggravated by the moſt flagrant affront that the dignity of an Indian prince could receive; for the perſons of women of rank are deemed ſacred, even in war. Murzafa-jing no ſooner heard of this inſult, than he ordered his whole army to halt, put himſelf at the head of a large body of troops, and prepared to march againſt the nabob of Cudapa. Mr. Buſſy, who had been inſtructed to avoid if poſſible all occaſions of committing hoſtilities in the rout to Gol-kondah, interpoſed, and with much difficulty prevailed on him to ſuſpend his reſentment, until the nabob explained the reaſons of his conduct. Meſſengers were ſent both from Murzafa-jing and Mr. Buſſy; to thoſe of Murzafa-jing the nabob of Cudapa anſwered, that he waited for their maſter ſword in hand; but to Mr. Buſſy he ſent word, that he was ready to make ſubmiſſions to the ſoubah through his mediation. The difference of theſe anſwers ſtung this prince to the quick, and nothing could now ſtop him from proceeding to take inſtant revenge. He told Mr. Buſſy, who ſtill attempted to reclaim him, that every Pitan in his army was a traitor born; and in a very few minutes the truth of his aſſertion was confirmed; for his ſpies brought intelligence, that the troops of all the three nabobs were drawn up together in battle-array; that they were poſted to defend a defile which lay in the rout of the army, and that ſeveral poſts leading to the defile were defended by cannon, which had been brought there ſome days before. Theſe preparations left no doubt that the rebellion of the nabobs was premeditated; and indeed they had begun to concert it from the very hour that they had taken the oath of allegiance in Pondicherry. Murzafa-jing, in full march at the head of his cavalry, grew impatient of the ſlow pace of the French battalion, and hurried away to attack the rebels without their aſſiſtance. The Pitan nabobs had in their ſervice many of their own countrymen, who, although much inferior in number, ſtood the ſhock with great intrepidity, and had even repulſed his troops before Mr. Buſſy came up. The fire of the French artillery, after a ſevere ſlaughter, changed the fortune of the day, and obliged the Pitans to retreat; when Murzafa-jing, irritated by the repulſe he had ſuſtained, rallied his troops, and heedleſs of the remonſtrances of Mr. Buſſy, purſued the fugitives, and left once more the French battalion behind, who endeavoured to keep ſight of him, but

but in vain. They ſoon after came up to ſome of his troops, who were cutting to pieces the body of the nabob of Savanore dead on the ground. The nabob of Cudapa had fled out of the field deſperately wounded, and in purſuing him, Murzafa-jing came up with the nabob of Canoul, who, finding he could not eſcape, turned with the handful of troops that ſurrounded him, and puſhed on towards the elephant of his enemy. Exaſperated by this defiance, the young prince made a ſign to his troops to leave the perſon of the nabob to be attacked by himſelf. The two elephants were driven up cloſe to each other, and Murzafa-jing had his ſword uplifted to ſtrike, when his antagoniſt thruſt his javelin, which pierced his forehead with ſo much force that the point entered the brain; he fell back dead: a thouſand arms were aimed at the nabob, who was in the ſame inſtant mortally wounded; and the troops, not ſatisfied with this atonement, fell with fury on thoſe of the nabob, whom they ſoon overpowered, and cut to pieces. The French battalion was preparing to hail them returning from the field with acclamations of victory, when the news of Murzafa-jing's fate ſtruck them with the deepeſt conſternation. They immediately marched back to the camp, which they found in the utmoſt confuſion; for large arrears of pay were due to the army; and it was to be apprehended that the ſoldiery would mutiny and plunder, and every general ſuſpected all the others of ſiniſter intentions.

But this diſaſter affected no intereſt more ſeverely than that of the French; for by it were annihilated all the advantages which were gained by the murder of Nazir-jing; and Mr. Buſſy was left without pretenſions to interfere any farther in the concerns of the Decan. This officer ſaw all the deſperate conſequences of his preſent ſituation, without loſing his preſence of mind: he aſſembled the generals and miniſters, and found them as ready as himſelf to admit of any expedient by which the loſs of their ſovereign might be repaired: beſides the ſon of Murzafa-jing, an infant, there were in the camp three brothers of Nazir-jing, whom that prince had brought into the Carnatic under ſtrict confinement, to prevent their engaging in revolts during his abſence; and after his death they were continued under the ſame reſtraint by Murzafa-jing. Mr. Buſſy propoſed, that the vacant dignity of ſoubah ſhould be conferred on the eldeſt of the brothers, by name Salabat-jing; and the generals, from a ſenſe of the convulſions to which the reign of a minor would be expoſed, readily acquieſced to the excluſion of Murzafa-jing's ſon, and unanimouſly approved of Mr. Buſſy's advice. It was immediately carried into execution, the three princes were releaſed from their confinement, and Salabat-jing was proclaimed ſoubah of the Decan, with the univerſal conſent of the army. His elevation, and the ſignal cataſtrophe of this day, in which three of the conſpirators of Nazir-jing's death fell in the battle fighting

againſt each other, were regarded by many as a retribution of the divine juſtice.

The advantage and neceſſity of the Chriſtian Revelation, ſhewn from the ſtate of religion in the ancient heathen world, eſpecially with reſpect to the knowledge and worſhip of the one true God, a rule of moral duty, and a ſtate of future rewards and puniſhments; to which is prefixed a preliminary diſcourſe on natural and revealed religion. In two volumes. By John Leland, *D. D. author of the View of the Deiſtical Writers, &c. London.*

THE world is already well acquainted with the labours of this ingenious and learned author in the cauſe of religion, by his View of the deiſtical writers, and his maſterly refutation of their various ſyſtems of infidelity. We are, therefore, prepared to receive favourably any other work of the ſame writer upon the ſame ſubject, in which he is ſo perfectly, and, with ſo much ability, converſant. The great drift of this book is to attack deiſts in one of their principal ſtrongholds, the ſufficiency of natural reaſon for the purpoſes of rational religion, and ſpeculative as well as practical morality. Agreably to this intention the author propoſes "to repreſent the ſtate of religion in the gentile world, with reſpect to that which lies at the foundation of all religion, the knowledge and worſhip of the one true God, in oppoſition to idolatry and polytheiſm. 2dly, To conſider what notions they had of moral duty, taken in its juſt extent; a thing of the higheſt importance to mankind. 3dly. To take a view of the notions which obtained among them of a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments; which is alſo a point of vaſt conſequence to the cauſe of religion and virtue in the world. Under theſe ſeveral heads. He does not pretend to argue from ſpeculative hypotheſes concerning the ſuppoſed powers of human nature; or to affirm that it is not poſſible for any man, by the mere force of his own reaſon, to attain to any rational perſuaſion of theſe things; but proceeds upon fact and experience, which will help us to form the trueſt judgment in this matter, and will ſhew us what we are to expect from human reaſon, if left merely to its own unaſſiſted force, in the preſent ſtate of mankind."

This plan he has executed with great force of reaſoning, and great perſpicuity of ſtile; with a vaſt compaſs of erudition; and with that candour and ingenuouſneſs, with that mild and amiable temper, which always ought to accompany chriſtian controverſy; and muſt contribute ſo highly to the efficacy of thoſe powerful arguments, which are brought to ſupport our religion. On the whole we know no one performance ſo full and ſatisfactory on this ſubject; nor any, in which the author has ſo fully accompliſhed what he propoſes. Every thing is not new; though there is much that is ſo. Perhaps the author did wiſely in avoiding that affectation; but then every thing

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is well enforced, and nothing is omitted.

Having laid down the plan of the work from the author, all that remains is to give ſome ſpecimen of his manner of writing. We cannot ſelect a more curious part than his enquiry into the heathen myſteries, which have been ſo large a ſubject of critical diſcuſſion, and in which he differs from the ſyſtem of another very learned author.

"Here it is proper to take notice of an argument, which the celebrated author of the Divine Legation ſeems to regard as a plain proof, that the myſteries were deſigned to detect and overthrow the error of the vulgar polytheiſm. He obſerves, that what the legiſlators and civil magiſtrates had principally in view in inſtituting and conducting the myſteries, was the promoting the practice of virtue among the people for the good of the ſociety. "But there was one inſuperable "obſtacle to it, the vicious ex- "amples of their gods.—It was "therefore neceſſary to remedy "this evil, which they did by "ſtriking at the root of it. The "myſtagogue taught the initiat- "ed, that Jupiter, Mercury, Ve- "nus, Mars, and the whole rab- "ble of licentious deities, were "indeed only dead mortals, ſub- "ject in life to the ſame paſſions "and vices with themſelves.— "The fabulous gods being thus "routed, the ſupreme cauſe of "all things took their place," &c.

I readily agree with this learned writer, that the ill effect of the vicious examples of the gods could not be effectually prevented, but by overturning the vulgar polytheiſm, and diſcarding the popular deities. But the ancient heathens were of a different opinion. Some of them made no ſcruple of declaring their diſapprobation of the vicious actions aſcribed to their gods in the poetical fables; and yet it does not appear that they were for rejecting the deities themſelves, to whom thoſe actions were aſcribed, or turning the people from the worſhip of them. As, by our author's acknowledgment, they were only the poetical ſtories about the vicious actions of the gods, that, in their opinion, made polytheiſm hurtful to the ſtate, they thought they might ſtill maintain the eſtabliſhed deities in the worſhip which was rendered to them according to the laws, and yet prevent the ill influence of thoſe fables upon the people. To this purpoſe it was pretended, that thoſe ſtories were not to be underſtood in the groſs literal ſenſe; and that they had a hidden meaning contained under them. Of this we have a ſpecimen in the phyſical explication given by Varro of the ſtory of Proſerpine's having been raviſhed by Pluto, which was one of the things repreſented in the Eleuſinian myſteries*. This was undoubtedly a fundamental defect in their ſcheme. For whilſt the poetical mytho-

* Apud Auguſt. De Civ. Dei. lib. vii. cap. 20. p. 136. Edit. Bened.

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logy kept its place in the public religion and worſhip, and the ſtories and ancient traditions concerning the gods were held ſacred among the people, no phyſical or allegorical interpretations, which were for the moſt part ſtrained, could prevent the ill influence which the literal and obvious meaning would naturally have upon them. And for this reaſon among others it could ſcarce be expected, that the myſteries ſhould have a good effect in rectifying the religion or morals of the people. They were by no means intended to aboliſh the public ſyſtem of polytheiſm, and whilſt that continued in force with which thoſe fables were ſo cloſely interwoven, all attempts to defeat the bad effects of them were ineffectual and vain.

That the myſteries were not deſigned to overthrow the vulgar polytheiſm, may, I think, be fairly argued from this conſideration, that the legiſlators and civil magiſtrates who firſt inſtituted the myſteries, and continued to have the chief direction of them, "had," as our learned author obſerves, "the chief hand in "the riſe of the vulgar poly-"theiſm, and contrived that poly-"theiſm for the ſake of the ſtate, "to keep the people in awe, and "under a greater veneration for their laws *." And could it be expected from ſuch legiſlators and magiſtrates, that they, who, by his own acknowledgment, regarded not *truth* but *utility* ‖, ſhould in good earneſt attempt to draw the people off from that polytheiſm which they themſelves had encouraged and eſtabliſhed for the welfare of the ſtate, and to keep the people under a greater veneration for the laws? After having ſaid, that "the fabulous gods "were routed in the myſteries, "and that the initiated were "taught the doctrine of the uni-"ty, the Supreme cauſe of all "things," he obſerves, that "theſe "were the truths, which, Varro "tells us, it was expedient for "the people to know, imagining "the error of the vulgar poly-"theiſm to be ſo inveterate, that "it was not to be expelled with-"out throwing the ſociety into "convulſions §." And any one that duly conſiders the maxims by which the ancient legiſlators and great men of the ſtate governed themſelves, will not readily believe that they were capable of forming a ſcheme, the tendency of which was, in their opinion, to throw the ſociety into

* Div. Leg. p. 156.

‖ Speaking of the hidden doctrines of the ſchools of philoſophy, and thoſe of the myſteries of religion, he ſays, "They could not be the ſame, becauſe "their ends were very different; the end of philoſophy being only truth, the "end of religion only utility." p. 151. And in a marginal note, ibid. it is ſaid concerning the legiſlator and civil magiſtrate, that "whilſt he was too little ſol-"licitous about truth, he encouraged a polytheiſm deſtructive of ſociety, to re-"gulate which, he, ſucceſsfully however, employed the myſteries." With what ſucceſs theſe myſteries were employed to regulate the vulgar polytheiſm, ſufficiently appears from the obſervations which I have here made, and ſhall farther make upon this ſubject.

§ Div. Leg. p. 155. 156.

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into convulsions. If it be urged, that this was the very reason of their "discovering the delusion of "polytheism in the mysteries only "to such of the initated as were "judged capable of the secret;" and that "this being sup-"posed the shaking foundations "was to be done with all pos-"sible circumspection, and un-"der the most tremendous seal "of secresy §;" let us see whether this will account for the conduct of the legislators and magistrates, and render their scheme consistent. Upon this view of it the expedient must stand thus: The legislators and magistrates, being convinced of the error and evil tendency of the vulgar polytheism, and yet being persuaded that it would be dangerous to the state to let this be generally known, contrived the mysteries, in which the initiated were to be instructed, that the deities commonly adored were no gods but only dead men, and that there is only one true God, the Creator and governor of the world; and at the same time were to be laid under the strictest obligations to keep this to themselves, and not to divulge it. The language of the mystagogue to the initiated must therefore be supposed to have been to this purpose. I am now going to reveal to you a thing which is of the highest importance to you to know, because I look upon you to be persons fit to be entrusted with the secret; and that is, that those which are commonly esteemed gods, and the worship of which makes up the public religion of the state, are not gods, nor ought to be regarded as such, that they are only dead men; that this rabble of licentious deities, Jupiter, Mercury, Venus, Mars, and others of the like sort, ought to be routed and discarded; and that you should acknowledge and adore the one only God, the Creator and governor of the universe. But then you are bound by the most sacred oaths and engagements to keep what I now tell you an inviolable secret. To reveal it would expose you to the divine vengeance, and to the capital punishments denounced by the laws against the betrayers of the mysteries; and it would be of the most pernicious consequence to spread this doctrine among the people. You must still go on to worship the popular gods as before, and must never attempt the least alteration in the established religion and worship.

This appears to me to be a strange inconsistent scheme. And it is hard to conceive what the legislator could propose by so odd and unaccountable a management. It was not the virtue of a few individuals but of the society in general that he must be supposed to have in view; and how could this end be answered by committing the secret, which is supposed to be of such im-

§ He goes on to shew, that they were taught, that the gods would punish the revealers of the secret, and not only them but the hearers of it too; besides which the state decreed capital punishments against the betrayers of the mysteries. Div. Leg. p. 189.

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portance to the morals of the people, only to a few of the initiated, who were at the same time brought under the most solemn engagements not to discover it? And even as to those few to whom the secret was communicated, to what purpose would it be to instruct them in doctrines they were not to make use of? Or, what opinion could they have of the honesty of those that should instruct them to despise those popular deities, whom yet they would have them publicly adore? And who should discover to them the delusion of the vulgar polytheism, and the falsehood of the religion of their country, and yet urge it upon them as a duty to conform to it? If the mysteries were founded upon such a plan, it is not to be wondered at, that they had little effect on the minds and manners of men.

But I cannot bring myself to believe, that the legislators ever intended, that there should be any thing in the mysteries which should expose the established religion and worship to contempt. If Virgil has, according to our author's most ingenious conjecture, made a genuine representation of the mysteries in the 6th book of his Æneid, "non temnere divos —not to contemn the gods," was a lesson carefully inculcated there *. Instead of being intended to prejudice persons against the religion of their country, it is reasonable to believe that they were rather designed to strengthen their attachment to it; and by shews and striking representations, fitted to work upon the imaginations of the people, to impress them with a greater awe and veneration for their deities. Accordingly it is observable, that those who were most zealous for the mysteries, were wont also to manifest the greatest zeal for the pagan religion; and they who were enemies to the pagan polytheism, as the primitive Christians universally were, had a very bad opinion of the mysteries.

That they were not intended to subvert by their secret doctrines the vulgar polytheism, may be farther argued from this consideration, that these mysteries were, according to this learned writer, "under the presidency of various "gods, and were celebrated in "their names, and to their ho-"nour." Henames Isis and Osiris, Mythras, the mother of the gods, Bacchus, Venus, Jupiter, Ceres, and Proserpina, Castor and Pollux, Vulcan, and many others ‡. And he observes, that "each "of the pagan gods had (besides "the public and open) a secret "worship paid unto him: to "which none were admitted but "those who had been selected by "preparatory ceremonies, called "*initiations*. This secret worship "was termed the mysteries. But "though every god had, besides "his open worship, the secret like-"wise, yet this latter did not eve-"ry where attend the former, but "only there where he was the "patron god, or in principal es-"teem †." I think it hence follows, that there was only this difference between the public worship of those gods, and that rendered to them in the mysteries,

* It was one of the laws of Charondas, as Stobæus informs us, "Let the "contempt of the gods be reckoned among the greatest crimes." Stob. serm. 42.

‡ Div. Leg. p. 138. † Ibid. p. 137.

that

that the latter was attended with ſome peculiar circumſtances, and performed in a more ſolemn manner, not by all promiſcuouſly, but by thoſe who by a particular initiation were prepared for it. The myſteries therefore were not deſigned to diſcard the worſhip of thoſe deities, but to add a greater ſolemnity to it. And particularly they were intended for the honour of the patron deity, and were celebrated in places where he "was had in principal "eſteem." But how could it be ſaid, that in the myſteries the ſecret worſhip of thoſe deities was celebrated, if the deſign of the ſecret doctrine of thoſe myſteries was to ſhew that they were no gods, and that no worſhip was due to them at all? And indeed, if the people had the leaſt ſuſpicion that this was the deſign of the ſecret doctrine taught in the myſteries, far from regarding them with ſo profound a veneration, they would have had them in abhorrence *. The Athenians, who expelled Anaxagoras, and put Socrates to death, for ſhewing, as they ſuppoſed, a diſreſpect to the religion and gods of their country, would never have endured myſteries, in which the initiated were taught the error of polytheiſm, and whoſe ἀπόῤῥητα overthrew the worſhip of the gods commonly adored, and even of thoſe to whoſe honour the myſteries were celebrated. It was for ſeeming in a drunken frolic to make a mock of the holy myſteries, and for offending the goddeſſes Ceres and Proſerpina, to whom they were conſecrated, that Alcibiades had the judgment of death paſſed upon him, and which would certainly have been inflicted, if he had not ſaved himſelf by flight. The rage the people of Athens were put into by this, and by the breaking the images of Mercury, which happened at the ſame time, and the numbers that were put to death on the account of it, ſhew how very zealous they were for the honour of their gods, and that they thought it an execrable impiety and prophaneneſs to do any thing which tended to caſt contempt on the popular deities, on their images and ſacred rites. A particular account of this may be ſeen in Plutarch's life of Alcibiades.

To all this may be added an argument from fact and experience, which ſeems to me to be of great force, and that is, that though the myſteries were generally celebrated in almoſt all the heathen nations, and eſpecially throughout the whole Roman empire, no effect of them appears in turning

* Every citizen of Athens was bound by oath to defend and conform to the religion of his country. This oath was in the name of the gods, and concluded thus. I ſwear by theſe following deities, the Agrauli, Enyalius, Mars, Jupiter, the Earth, and Diana. See Potter's Greek Antiquities, vol. i. 141, 142. And to have taught them, though in the moſt ſecret way, that the gods they had ſworn by were no gods, would have been looked upon as an attempt to ſubvert the commonwealth at the foundations, and to diſſolve the ſanction and obligatory force of thoſe oaths, which were thought to be the moſt powerful bands of the public ſafety and ſecurity.

any

any of the people from their polytheism and idolatry. He talks indeed, in a passage cited above, of the legislator's having "successfully employed" the mysteries for regulating the vulgar polytheism. But how is this proved? can any instances be produced of persons that were converted from the public idolatry and polytheism by the mysteries? notwithstanding this boasted expedient it still kept its ground, and made a continual progress among the gentiles. The argument will receive an additional strength and force, if applied to the case of the Athenians. Athens was the principal seat of the Eleusinian, which were esteemed the most sacred and venerable of all the mysteries. There they were thought to be best understood, and to be celebrated in their greatest purity, and in the most religious and solemn manner. All the Athenians in general were initiated. It might therefore have been expected, that if the design of the mysteries had been such as is represented, it would have inspired some of them with a secret contempt of their deities, and of the common polytheism: and that this, in time and by degrees, would have wrought a remarkable change among them. But the contrary is manifest from their whole history. They seem rather to have been more and more devoted to their idolatries and superstitions. Nor had their polytheism ever been at a greater height than at the time of our Saviour's appearing."

An Essay on Painting, written originally in Italian by count Algarotti, gentleman of the bedchamber to his Prussian majesty, F.R.S. &c.

IT has been observed, that the science of criticism is not perfected, until the arts, about which it is conversant, are upon the decline. From their ashes a new object arises, which is capable of furnishing a very agreeable and very useful entertainment to the mind. If criticism does not tend to form new masters, and execute new works of genius, it enables us to go over the old ones with a much higher and a much more rational pleasure.

The author of the work before us is of that country, in which painting, one of the finest of these arts, has been carried the nearest to perfection. It is to be hoped, that this art has rather changed its residence, than totally abandoned the world; and that having declined in those fine climates, where it had originally its birth, it is coming to fix, with empire, commerce and philosophy, in a more northern region. The author seems to be of that opinion, by addressing himself to a patriotic and respectable body in this kingdom.

His work, which is elegant and judicious, and which is full without being at all loaded, takes in the whole circle of the art, and begins, as Quintilian's institution of an orator, by treating on the education which is necessary for a painter; from whence he proceeds to anatomy, perspective, symmetry, colouring, and the rest of those parts, which combine to form a perfect

fect artiſt, and a correct judge. The ſtile of Algarotti is elegant, clear, lively, and pointed; and we are not ſurpriſed, that the author, who has been capable of uniting the graces with the ſevere philoſophy of Newton, ſhould be able to ſupport a diſſertation on this polite art with taſte and elegance.

It is this taſte and elegance, which forms the principal merit of the work before us, which is, indeed, not as profound as it is ingenious. However, although the author does not afford to a mind converſant in the matter a great many new ideas, his work will ſerve as a very good introduction to this ſpecies of criticiſm for thoſe, who are beginning to form a taſte for painting, as it takes in, (however lightly) the whole extent of the art, and directs to the moſt proper methods of acquiring a more exact and enlarged knowledge.

We ſhall preſent the reader, as a ſpecimen of his manner, with with that chapter, in which he treats of the education of a painter; and then with the tenth chapter on invention, which is written with great ſenſe and elegance.

Chap. I. Of the firſt education of a painter.

It would be madneſs to place a boy, who, after repeated trials, hath diſcovered a natural genius for painting, in the uſual track of ſtudy, and ſend him, with the common herd of children, to the Latin ſchool. Inſtead of Latin, he ſhould be made to learn thoroughly the rudiments of his own tongue; and inſtead of Cicero's epiſtles, he ſhould be made to read Borghini, Baldinucci, Vaſari. This method would be attended with two advantages; one, that of rendering him maſter of his mother tongue; and thereby freeing him from the diſagreeable neceſſity, under which many very celebrated painters have laboured, of having recourſe to the pen of others, even to write their letters; the other, that of enriching his mind, at the ſame time, with ſeveral branches of knowledge uſeful to one of his profeſſion. Beſides, the frequent mention made in theſe books of the great eſteem, in which painting has been held by men in the higheſt ſpheres of life, by the maſters of the world, and of the great honours and rewards conferred by them, in every age, on the profeſſors of that art, could not but prove a moſt powerful incentive to the zeal and diligence of a young painter.

It is not a matter of ſo little importance, as ſome are, perhaps, apt to imagine, upon what drawings a pupil is firſt put to exerciſe his talents. Let the firſt profiles, the firſt hands, the firſt feet, given him to copy, be of the beſt maſters, ſo as to bring his eye and his hand early acquainted with the moſt elegant forms, and the moſt beautiful proportions *. A youth, employed in copying the work

* Stultiſſimum credo ad imitandum non optima quæque proponere. Plin. lib. I. epiſt. v.

work of a middling painter, in order to proceed afterwards to ſomething of Raphael's, having ſaid in the hearing of a maſter, that he did it in order to bring his hand in; the maſter as ſenſibly as wittily replied, "Say rather, to "put it out." A painter, who has early acquired a fine ſtile, finds it an eaſy matter to give dignity to the meaneſt features, while even the works of a Praxiteles or a Glicon are ſure to ſuffer in the hands of another. A veſſel will ever retain the ſcent, which it has firſt contracted.

It would be proper alſo to make the pupil copy ſome fine heads from the Greek and Roman medals, not ſo much for the reaſons juſt now laid down, as to make him acquainted, if I may uſe the expreſſion, with thoſe perſonages, which in time he may have occaſion to introduce into his pieces; and, above all, to improve him early in the art of copying from relief. Hence he will learn the rationale of light and ſhade, and the nature of that *chiaroſcuro*, by which it is, properly ſpeaking, that the various forms of things are diſtinguiſhed. To this it is owing, that a boy will profit more by drawing after things in relief, though but meanly executed, than by copying the moſt excellent drawings. But, whatever he does, care ſhould be taken to make him do it with delight, and finiſh it in the moſt accurate manner. Nothing in the world is ſo neceſſary as diligence, eſpecially at the firſt entrance upon any ſtudy. Nor muſt he ever expect to have the compaſſes in his eye, who has not firſt had them for a long time in his hand.

Chap. X. Of invention.

As the operations of a general ſhould, all, ultimately tend to battle and conqueſt; ſo ſhould all the thoughts of a painter to perfect invention. Now, the ſtudies, which I have been hitherto recommending, will prove ſo many wings, by which he may raiſe himſelf, as it were, from the ground, and ſoar on high, when deſirous of trying his ſtrength this way, and producing ſomething from his own fund. Invention is the finding out probable things, not only ſuch as are adapted to the ſubject in hand, but ſuch, beſides, as by their ſublimity and beauty are moſt capable of exciting ſuitable ſentiments in the ſpectator, and of making him, when they happen to be well executed, fancy that it is the ſubject itſelf, in its greateſt perfection, and not a mere repreſentation of it, that he has before him. I do not ſay true things, but probable things; becauſe probability or veriſimilitude

Et naturâ tenaciſſimi ſumus eorum, quæ rudibus annis percepimus, ut ſapor, quo nova imbuas, durat, nec lanarum colores, quibus ſimplex ille candor mutatus eſt, elui poſſunt, & hæc ipſa magis pertinaciter hærent, quæ deteriora ſunt. Nam bona facile mutantur in pejus: nunc quando in bonum verteris vitia? Quintil. Inſtit. Orat. lib. I. cap. i.

Frangas citius quam corrigas quæ in pravum induruerunt. Id. ibid. cap. iii.

is,

is, in fact, the truth of those arts, which have the fancy for their object *. It is, indeed, the business and duty of both naturalists and historians to draw objects as they find them, and represent them with all those imperfections and blemishes, to which, as individuals, they are subject. But an ideal painter, and such alone is a true painter, resembles the poet: instead of copying he imitates; that is, he works with his fancy, and represents objects, endued with all that perfection, which belongs to the species, and may be conceived in the archetype. 'Tis all nature, says an English poet, speaking of poetry: and the same may be said of painting, but it is nature methodized and made perfect †. Insomuch, that the circumstances of the action, exalted and sublimed to the highest degree of beauty and boldness they are susceptible of, may, though possible, have never happened, exactly such as the painter fancies, and thinks proper to represent, them. Thus, the piety of Æneas, and the anger of Achilles, are things so perfect in their kind, as to be merely probable. And it is for this reason, that poetry, which is only another word for invention, is more philosophical, more instructive, and more entertaining than history ‡.

Here it is proper to observe, what great advantages the ancient had over the modern painters. The history of the times they lived in, fraught with great and glorious events, was to them a rich mine of the most noble subjects, which, besides, often derived no small sublimity and pathos from the mythology, upon which their religion was founded. So far were their Gods from being immaterial, and placed at an infinite distance above their worshippers; so far was their religion from recommending humility, penance, and self-denial, that, on the contrary, it appeared calculated merely to flatter the senses, inflame the passions, and poison the fancy. By making the gods partake of our nature, and subjecting them to the same passions, it gave man hopes of being able to mix with those, who, though greatly above him, resembled him, notwithstanding, in so many respects. Besides, these deities of theirs were in a manner visible, and to be met at every step. The sea was crowded with Tritons and Nereids, the rivers with Naids, and the mountains with Dryads. The woods swarmed with Fauns and Nymphs,

* Judgment of Hercules, Introduction.

† 'Tis nature all, but nature methodiz'd.
Essay on Criticism.

‡ Διὸ καὶ φιλοσοφώτερον καὶ σπουδαιότερον ποίησις ἱστορίας ἐστὶν, ἡ μὲν γὰρ ποίησις μᾶλλον τὰ καθόλου, ἡ δὲ ἱστορία τὰ καθ' ἕκαστον λέγει.

De la foi d'un Chretien les mysteres terribles
D'ornements egayez ne sont point susceptibles:
L'Evangile a l'esprit n'offre de tous côtes,
Que penitence a faire, & tourments meritez.
Despreaux, Art. Poet. Chant. III.

who,

who, in these obscure retreats, sought an asylum for their stolen embraces. The most potent empires, the most noble families, the most celebrated heroes, all derived their pedigree from the greater divinities. Nay, gods interested themselves in all the concerns of mankind. Apollo, the god of long arrows, stood by the side of Hector in the fields of Troy; and inspired him with new strength and courage to batter down the walls, and burn the ships of the Greeks. These, on the other hand, were led on to the fight and animated by Minerva, preceded by terror, and followed by death. Jove nods, his divine locks shake on his immortal head; Olympus trembles. With that countenance, which allays the tempest, and restores serenity to the heavens, he gathers kisses from the mouth of Venus, the delight of gods and of men. Among the ancients, every thing sported with the fancy; and in those works, which depend entirely on the imagination, some of our greatest masters have thought they could not do better than borrow from the pagans, if I may be allowed to say it, their pictures of Tartarus, in order to render their own drawings of hell more striking and picturesque.

After all, there have not been wanting able inventors in point of painting among the moderns. Michael Angelo, notwithstanding the depth and boldness of his own fancy, is not ashamed, in some of his compositions, to *dantize* *; as Phidias and Apelles may be said formerly to have *homerized* †. Raphael too, tutored by the Greeks, has found means, like Virgil, to extract the quintessence of truth; has seasoned his works with

* Concerning this we have a singular anecdote in the annotations, with which Monsignor Bottari, to whom the polite arts are so much indebted, has illustrated the life of Michael Angelo. It is as follows. "We may see how much he studied Dante by a copy of this author, (the first edit. with the comment of Landino) in his possession. On the margins, which were left very broad, Bonarotti had drawn with a pen every thing contained in the poems of Dante, and, among the rest, an infinite number of the most excellent naked figures, in the most striking attitudes. This book got into the hands of Antonio Montauti of Florence, an intimate friend of the celebrated Abbate Antonio Maria Salvini, as appears from many letters written by the latter to the former, and printed in the collection of the Florentine pieces in prose. Montauti was by profession a statuary, and a very able one; and set the greatest esteem upon this volume. But having ordered, on his departure from Florence to fill the place of surveyor to the church of St. Peter's at Rome, that all his marbles, bronzes, books, &c. should be sent after him by sea, under the care of one of his pupils, the vessel, in which they were, perished, unfortunately, in a storm between Leghorn and Civita Vecchia, and, along with her, Montauti's pupil and all his effects, among the rest this inestimable volume, which, alone, would have done honour to the library of the greatest monarch."

† Phidias quoque Homeri versibus egregio dicto allusit. Simulacro enim Jovis Olympii perfecto, quo nullum præstantius aut admirabilius humanæ fabricatæ sunt manus; interrogatus ab amico, quonam mentem suam dirigens, vultum Jovis propemodum ex ipso cœlo petitum, eboris lineamentis effet amplexus: Illis se versibus, quasi magistris, usum respondit. Iliad. 1.

with grace and nobleneſs, and exalted nature, in a manner, above herſelf, by giving her an aſpect more beautiful, more animating, and more ſublime than ſhe is, in reality, accuſtomed to wear. In point of invention, Domenichino and Annibal Caracci come very near Raphael, eſpecially in the pieces painted by them in Rome; nor does Pouſſin fall very ſhort of him in ſome of his pictures, particularly in his Eſther-before-Ahaſuerus, and his death-of-Germanicus, the richeſt jewel belonging to the Barberine family. Of all the painters, who have acquired any extraordinary degree of reputation, no one ſtudied leſs to ſet off his pieces by bold and beautiful circumſtances, or was more a ſtranger to what is called poetical perfection, than Jacopo Baſſano. Among the numberleſs inſtances I could produce of his careleſſneſs this way, let it ſuffice to mention a Preaching-of-St. Paul painted by him in a place, near that of his birth, called Maroſtega. Inſtead of repreſenting the apoſtle, full of a divine enthuſiaſm, as Raphael has done, and thundering againſt the ſuperſtitions of the heathen in an aſſembly of Athenians; inſtead of exhibiting one of his auditors ſtruck to the quick, another perſuaded, a third inflamed; he makes him hold forth, in a village of the Venetian ſtate, to a parcel of poor peaſants and their wives, who take not the leaſt notice of him; the women eſpecially, who ſeem to mind nothing but the country labours, in which he had found them employed. After all, this is an admirable piece, and would be a perfect one, had the painter not diſgraced it ſo much by the poverty of his ideas.

With regard to invention, painting and poetry reſemble each other ſo much in many other reſpects, beſides that of combining in every action all the beauty and elegance it will admit, that they well deſerve the name of ſiſter arts. They differ, however, in one point, and that too of no ſmall importance. It is this. The poet, in the repreſentation of his ſtory, relates what has already happened, prepares that which is ſtill to come, and ſo proceeds, ſtep by ſtep, through all the circumſtances of the action; and to operate the greater effect on his hearers, avails himſelf of the ſucceſſion of time and place. The painter, on the contrary, deprived of ſuch helps, muſt be content to depend upon

Ἡ ᾗ κυανέῃσιν ἐπ' ὀφρύσι νεῦσε Κρονίων,
Ἀμβρόσιαι δ' ἄρα χαῖται ἐπερρώσαντο ἄνακτος
Κρατὸς ἀπ' ἀθανάτοιο. μέγαν δ' ἐλέλιξεν Ὄλυμπον.

Valer. Max. lib. III. cap. vi. exemplo ext. 4.

Fecit Apelles & Neoptolemum ex equo pugnantem adverſus Perſas; Archelaum cum uxore & filia, Antigonum thoracatum cum equo incedentem. Pertiores artis præferunt omnibus ejus operibus eumdem Regem ſedentem in equo: Dianam ſacrificantium virginum choro mixtam; quibus viciſſe Homeri verſus videtur, id ipſum deſcribentis. C. Plin. Nat. Hiſt. lib. XXXV. cap. x.

one ſingle moment. But what a moment! A moment, in which he may conjure up, at once, to the eyes of his ſpectator a thouſand objects; a moment, teeming with the moſt beautiful circumſtances that can attend the action; a moment, equivalent to the ſucceſſive labours of the poet. This the works of the greateſt maſters, which are every where to be ſeen, ſufficiently evince; among others, the St. Paul-at-Lyſtra, by Raphael, whom it is impoſſible not to praiſe as often as this picture is mentioned. In order to give the ſpectator a thorough inſight into the ſubject of this piece, the painter has placed, in the front of it, the cripple already reſtored to his limbs by the apoſtle, fired with gratitude towards his benefactor, and exciting his countrymen to yield him all kinds of honour. Round the cripple are ſome figures lifting up the ſkirt of his coat, in order to look at the legs reduced to their proper ſhape, and acknowledging by geſtures full of aſtoniſhment the reality of the miracle; an invention, ſays a certain author, a profeſſed admirer of antiquity, which might have been propoſed as an example in the happieſt age of Greece *.

We have another ſhining inſtance of the power of painting to introduce a great variety of objects on the ſcene at the ſame time, and of the advantage it has in this reſpect over poetry, in a drawing by the celebrated la Fage, which, like many other pieces of his, has not as yet been engraved, though worthier, perhaps, of that honour than any other performance of the kind. This drawing repreſents the deſcent of Æneas into hell. The field is the dark caverns of Pluto's kingdom, through the middle of which creeps ſlowly the muddy and melancholy Acheron. Nearly in the center of the piece appears Æneas with the golden bough in his hand, and with an air of aſtoniſhment at what he ſees. The Sybil, who accompanies him, is anſwering the queſtions which he aſks her. The perſonage there is the ferryman of the pitchy lake, by which even the gods themſelves are afraid to ſwear. Thoſe, who crowding in to the banks of the river, numberleſs as the leaves ſhaken off the trees by autumnal blaſts, expreſs, with out-ſtretched hands, an impatience to be ferried to the oppoſite ſhore, are the unhappy manes, who, for want of burial, are unqualified for that happineſs. Charon, accordingly, is crying out to them to keep off, and with his lifted up oar driving them from his boat, which has already taken in a number of thoſe, who had been honoured with the accuſtomed funeral rites. Behind Æneas and the Sybil we diſcover a confuſed groupe of wretched ſouls, lamenting bitterly their misfortune in being denied a paſſage; two of them wrapt up in their cloaths, and, in a fit of deſpair, ſunk upon a rock. Upon the firſt lines of the piece ſtands a third groupe of uninhumed ſhades, Leucaſpes, Orontes, and, in the midſt of them, the good old Pali-

* The wit of man could not deviſe means more certain of the end propoſed; ſuch a chain of circumſtances is equal to a narration: and I cannot but think, that the whole would have been an example of invention and conduct, even in the happieſt age of antiquity. Webb. Dial. VII.

nurus, formerly maſter and pilot of the hero's own veſſel, who with joined hands moſt earneſtly deſires to be taken along with him into the boat, that, after death, at leaſt, he may find ſome repoſe, and his dead body no longer remain the ſport of winds and waves. Thus, what we ſee ſcattered up and down in many verſes by Virgil, is here, as it were, gathered into a focus, and concentered by the ingenious pencil of the painter; ſo as to form a ſubject well worthy of being expoſed, in more ſhapes than one, to the eyes of the public*.

When a painter takes a ſubject in hand, be it hiſtorical, be it fabulous, he ſhould carefully peruſe the books which treat of it, imprint well on his mind all the circumſtances that attend it, the perſons concerned in it, and the paſſions with which they muſt have been ſeverally animated; not omitting the particulars of time and place. His next buſineſs is to create it, as it were, anew, obſerving the rules already laid down for that purpoſe. From what is true chuſing that which is moſt ſtriking, and cloathing his ſubject with ſuch acceſſary circumſtances and actions, as may render it more conſpicuous, pathetic and noble, and beſt diſplay the powers of the inventive faculty. But, in doing this, great diſcretion is requiſite; for, let his imagination grow ever ſo warm, his hand is never to execute any thing that is not fully approved by his judgment. Nothing low or vulgar ſhould appear in a lofty and noble argument; a fault, of which ſome of the greateſt maſters, even Lampieri and Pouſſin, have been now and then guilty.

The action muſt be one, the place one, the time one. I need not, I believe, ſay any thing of thoſe painters, who, like the wri-

* Ibant obſcuri ſola ſub nocte per umbras,
Perque domos Ditis vacuas & inania regna, &c.
Hinc via Tartarei quæ fert Acherontis ad undas:
Turbidus hic cœno vaſtaque voragine gurges
Æſtuat, &c.
Æneas miratus enim motuſque tumultu, &c.
Cocyti ſtagna alta vides, ſtygiamque paludem,
Dii cujus jurare timent, & fallere numen.
Hæc omnis quam cernis inops inhumataque turba eſt:
Portitor ille Charon, hi quos vehitunda ſepulti, &c.
Quam multa in ſylvis autumni frigore primo
Lapſa cadunt folia, &c.
Stabant orantes primi tranſmittere curſum,
Tendebantque manus ripæ ulterioris amore;
Navita ſed triſtis nunc hos, nunc accipit illos,
Aſt alios longe ſummotos arcet arena, &c.
Cernit ibi maeſtos, & mortis honore carentes
Leucaſpim & Lyciæ ductorem claſſis Orontem, &c.
Ecce gubernator ſe ſe Palinurus agebat, &c.
Nunc me fluctus habent, verſantque in littore venti, &c.
Da dextram miſero, & tecum me tolle per undas,
Sedibus ut ſaltem placidis in morte quieſcam. Virgil.

This drawing is in the poſſeſſion of the author of this Eſſay.

ters of the Chineſe and Spaniſh theatre, cram a variety of actions together, and ſo give us, at once, the whole life of a man. Such blunders, I flatter myſelf, are too groſs to be feared at preſent. The politeneſs and learning of the age ſeem to demand conſiderations of a more refined nature, ſuch as, that the epiſodes introduced in the drama of a picture, the better to fill and adorn it, ſhould be not only beautiful in themſelves, but indiſpenſably requiſite. The games, celebrated at the tomb of Anchiſes in Sicily, have a greater variety in them, and more ſources of delight, than thoſe, that had been before celebrated at the tomb of Patroclus under the walls of Troy. The arms forged by Vulcan for Æneas, if not better tempered, are at leaſt better engraved than thoſe, which the ſame god had forged ſeveral ages before for Achilles. Nevertheleſs, in the eyes of judges, both the games and the arms of Homer are more pleaſing than thoſe of Virgil, becauſe the former are more neceſſary in the Iliad, than the latter in the Æneid. Every part ſhould agree with, and have a relation to, the whole. Unity ſhould reign even in variety, for in this beauty conſiſts *. This is a fundamental maxim in all the arts, whoſe object it is to imitate the works of nature.

Pictures often borrow no ſmall grace and beauty from the fictions of poetry. Albani has left us, in ſeveral of his works, ſufficient proofs of the great ſhare the belles lettres had in refining his taſte. But Raphael, above all others, may, in this branch too, be conſidered as a guide and maſter. To give but one inſtance out of many; what a beautiful thought was it to repreſent the river himſelf, in a Paſſage-of-Jordan, ſupporting his waters with his own hands, in order to open a way to the army of the Iſraelites! Nor has he diſplayed leſs judgment in reviving, in his deſigns engraved by Agoſtino of Venice †, the little loves of Aetius, playing with the arms of Alexander conquered by the beauty of Roxana ‡.

Among the ancients, Apelles and Parrhaſius were thoſe who diſtinguiſhed themſelves moſt in allegorical ſubjects; in which the in-

* This puts me in mind, of what I once heard a man of letters and great learning ſay, *Abſolute beauty is* ONE, *deformity* MANIFOLD.

Della Caſa nel Galatea.

†*The original Italian ſays, by Marco Antonio. We are indebted to the noble Author for this correction, communicated by a private letter, as ſoon as he was informed of this tranſlation being in the preſs.*

‡ Ετέρωθι δὲ τῆς εἰκόνος ἄλλοι ἔρωτες παίσουσιν ἐν τοῖς ὅπλοις τοῦ Ἀλεξάνδρου, δύο μὲν τὴν λόγχην αὐτοῦ φέροντες, &c. Lucian.

Les folâtres plaiſirs dans le ſein de repos,
Les amours enfantins deſarmoient ce héros:
L'un tenoit ſa cuiraſſe encor de ſang trempée,
L'autre avoit détaché ſa redoutable épée,
Et rioit en tenant dans ſes débiles mains
Ce fer, l'appui du trone, & l'effroi des humains.

Henriade, Chant. IX.

ventive

ventive faculty shews itself to the greatest advantage: the first by his picture of Calumny ‡; the second by that of the Genius of the Athenians *. That ancient painter, called Galaton, gave likewise a fine proof of his genius in this branch, by representing a great number of poets greedily quenching their thirst, in the waters gushing from the mouth of the sublime Homer. And to this allegory, according to Guigni, Pliny has an eye, when he calls that prince of poets, the fountain of wits †. But it is, after all, no way surprising, that we should often meet such fine flights of fancy in the ancient artists. They were not guided in their works by a blind practice; they were men of polite education; conversant with the letters of the age in which they lived; and the companions, rather than the servants, of the great men who employed them §. The finest allegorical painter among the moderns was Rubens; and he was, accordingly, much celebrated for it. The best critics, however, find fault with his uniting, in the Luxemburg gallery, the queen-mother, in council, with two cardinals and Mercury ‖. Nor is there less impropriety in his making tritons and nereids, in another piece of the same gallery, swim to the queen's vessel through the galleys of the knights of St. Stephen. Such freedoms are equally disgus-

‡ See Lucian upon calumny, and the XXth note of Carlo Dati, in the life of Apelles.

* Pinxit (Parrhasius) Demon Athenienſium argumento quoque ingenioſo.
C. Plin. Nat. Hiſt. Lib. XXXV. Cap. x.

† Nonnulli quoque artifices non vulgaris ſolertiæ famam captantes longius petitæ inventionis gloriam præcipue ſibi amplexandam putabant. Ita Galaton pictor, teſte Æliano var. Hiſt. XIII. 22. pinxit immenſum gregem poetarum limpidas atque ubertim ex ore Homeri redundantes aquas avidiſſime haurientem. Hanc imaginem repræſentavit Ovidius III. Amorum, Eleg. 8.

Aſpice Mæoniden, a quo ceu fonte perenni,
Vatum Pieriis ora rigantur aquis.

Manilius quoque circa initium libri ſecundi de Homero

——————— Cujuſque ex ore profuſo
Omnis poſteritas latices in carmina duxit.

Plinius denique lib. XVII. Nat. Hiſt. Cap. v. videtur eo reſpexiſſe, cum Homerum vocat fontem ingeniorum.

De Pictura Veterum, Lib. III. Cap. i.

§ The ſtatuaries of Greece were not mere mechanics; men of education and literature, they were more the companions than ſervants of their employers: their taſte was refined by the converſation of courts, and enlarged by the lectures of their poets: accordingly the ſpirit of their ſtudies breathes through their works. Webb. Dial. IV.

‖ In the fine ſet of pictures, by Rubens, in the Luxemburg gallery, you will meet with various faults too, in relation to the allegories.

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the queen mother, in council, with two cardinals and Mercury, &c.
Polym. Dial. XVIII.

ful with the prophecies of Sannazaro's Proteus, concerning the myſtery of the incarnation; or the Indian kings of Camoens, reaſoning with the Portugueſe on the adventures of Ulyſſes.

The beſt modern performances in pictureſque allegory are, certainly, thoſe of Pouſſin, who availed himſelf, with great diſcretion and judgment, of the vaſt treaſures with which, by a cloſe ſtudy of the ancients, he had enriched his memory. On the other hand, le Brun, his countryman, has been very unhappy this way. Ambitious to have every thing his own, inſtead of allegories, he has filled the gallery of Verſailles with enigmas and riddles, of which none but himſelf was qualified to be the Œdipus. Allegory muſt be ingenious, it is true; but then it muſt be equally perſpicuous; for which reaſon, a painter ſhould avoid all vague and indeterminate alluſions, and likewiſe thoſe to hiſtory and heathen mythology, which are too abſtruſe to be underſtood by the generality of ſpectators. The beſt way, in my opinion, to ſymbolize moral and abſtract things, is to repreſent particular events; as Caracci did, by advice of Monſignore Agucchi, in the Farneſian palace †. For example, what can better expreſs a hero's love towards his country, than the virtuous Decius conſecrating himſelf boldly to the infernal gods, in order to ſecure victory to his countrymen over their enemies? What finer emblems can we deſire, of emulation, and an inſatiable thirſt for glory, than Julius Cæſar weeping before the ſtatue of Alexander in the temple of Hercules at Gades; of the inconſtancy of fortune, than Marius ſitting on the ruins of Carthage, and receiving, inſtead of the acclamations of an army joyfully ſaluting him emperor, orders from a lictor of Sextilius to quit Africa; of indiſcretion, than Candaules, who, by ſhewing the naked beauties of his wife to his friend Giges, kindled a paſſion, that ſoon made him repent his folly? Such repreſentations as theſe require no comment; they carry their explanation along with them. Beſides, ſuppoſing, and it is the worſt we can ſuppoſe, that the painter's aim in them ſhould happen not to be underſtood, his piece would ſtill give delight. It is thus that the fables of Arioſto prove ſo entertaining, even to thoſe, who underſtand nothing of the moral couched under them; and likewiſe the Æneis, though all do not comprehend the alluſions and double intent of the poet.

† See Bellori's Life of Caracci.

We were favoured with the following Piece too late to be inſerted in its proper place.

Character of the late Earl of Hardwicke.

IT has been already obſerved, that more perſons of eminence have paid the debt to nature in the courſe of this year than in any of the preceding. The juſtice due to the extraordinary talents, and long ſervices of the moſt diſtinguiſhed of that number, calls upon us to enlarge a little longer than uſual in our account of the late earl of Hardwicke. He was born at Dover in Kent, December the 1ſt. 1690; and after a well-grounded education under one of the beſt and moſt ingenious ſcholars of his time, Mr. Samuel Morland of Bednall Green, (a great perſonal friend of Dr. Samuel Clarke,) in claſſical and general learning, which he retained and cultivated amidſt his moſt laborious and higheſt employments, he applied himſelf to the ſtudy of the law in the Middle Temple; and being called to the bar within a few months after the acceſſion of the preſent royal family to the throne, ſoon became very eminent for his induſtry and parts, frequently arguing caſes of difficulty and conſequence, and was engaged in an extenſive courſe of practice.

In the year 1718, he was brought into parliament as member for Lewes in Suſſex, as alſo in the two ſucceſſive parliaments, for Seaford, by the intereſt of his grace the duke of Newcaſtle, with whom he maintained an inviolable friendſhip, and unreſerved confidence, during the reſt of his life.

Before the age of thirty, on the 23d of March 1719-20, when he was the youngeſt council on the weſtern circuit, he was promoted for his extraordinary riſing merit, to the office of ſolicitor general, by the recommendation of the lord chancellor Parker. This obligation he never forgot, returning it by all poſſible marks of perſonal regard and affection; and defended that noble lord with great honour and ſpirit, in the houſe of commons, againſt the rough attacks of ſerjeant Pengelly, in 1725, as to the manner of his lordſhip's anſwering the articles of impeachment, and his plea of the act of grace.

The tryal of Mr. Layer at the king's bench for high treaſon, in November 1722, gave the ſolicitor an opportunity of ſhewing how completely qualified he was for that office; his reply, which laſted above two hours in the delivery, and in which he ſummed up late at night the evidence againſt the priſoner, and very ably confuted all the topics of defence, being juſtly admired as one of the beſt performances of that kind extant.

About the ſame time, he gained much reputation in parliament, by his opening of the bill againſt Kelly, who had been principally concerned in biſhop Atterbury's plot, as his ſecretary.

In February 1723-4, he was appointed attorney general, Sir Clement Wearg ſucceeding him in the office of ſolicitor, with whom he lived in the moſt intimate union. In the execution of this important office, he was remarkable for his candour and lenity, as well as ſkill and other great qualities. As an advocate for the crown, he ſpoke with the veracity of a witneſs and a judge; And tho' his zeal for juſtice, and the due courſe of law was ſtrong, yet his tenderneſs to the ſubject, in the court of exchequer, was ſo diſtinguiſhed, that it happened once, when he touched upon his own conduct in that point, in ſome of the parliamentary debates upon the exciſe, in 1733, the whole houſe of commons aſſented to it with an univerſal applauſe. He was ſo unmoved by fear or favour, in what he thought right and legal, that he often debated and voted againſt the court, in matters relating to the South Sea, whilſt he was ſolicitor general: and it is well remembered, that ſome years afterwards, he brought a bill into parliament, and carried it through the houſe of commons, as attorney general, relating to the management of the Derwentwater eſtate, which was forfeited in the rebellion of 1715, contrary to the ſenſe of ſome of the miniſters, and of other eminent lawyers, merely becauſe he thought the ordinary courſe of law not adequate to redreſs or prevent frauds and abuſes in that caſe, without the interpoſition of parliament. Upon this occaſion, old Mr. Shippen ſaid, that he ſhould ever honour him for his juſtice.

Upon the reſignation of the great ſeal, by Peter Lord King, in October 1733, Sir Philip Yorke waved his own juſt pretenſions to it, in order to accommodate the public ſervice; and accepted the office of lord chief juſtice of the king's bench, being ſoon after raiſed to the dignity of a baron of of this kingdom, with the title of of lord Hardwicke, baron of Hardwicke in the county of Glouceſter; and called to the cabinet council.

Whilſt his lordſhip filled that ſeat, he delivered from it a conſiderable number of ſolemn arguments upon important points. As he was maſter of much learning early acquired; ſo he ſhewed a ſingular ſagacity and felicity of genius in explaining, illuſtrating, and inforcing it. Such inſtructive leſſons of juriſprudence, could not but be eminently uſeful to all, who attended that court, either as ſtudents or council.

In the midſt of the general approbation with which he diſcharged his office there, he was called to that of lord high chancellor, on the deceaſe of his illuſtrious predeceſſor lord Talbot, on the 17th of Febr. 1736-7, having the great ſeal delivered to him on the 21ſt of that month.

The integrity and abilities with which his lordſhip preſided in the court of chancery, during the ſpace of almoſt twenty years, a period longer than that of any of his predeceſſors, except lord chancellor Egerton, appears from this remarkable circumſtance, that only three of his decrees were appealed from, and even thoſe were afterwards affirmed by the houſe of lords.

After

After he had executed that high office about seventeen years, in times and circumstances of accumulated difficulty and danger, from a long, expensive, and upon the whole, unsuccessful war, violent contests of parties and factions at home, and a formidable rebellion, countenanced by a most powerful enemy, and had twice been called to the exercise of the office of lord high steward, on the tryals of peers concerned in the rebellion; he was, in April 1754, advanced by his late majesty, as a mark of his royal approbation of his services, to the rank of an earl of Great Britain, with the titles of viscount Royston, and earl of Hardwicke.

This favour was conferred unasked, by a sovereign rather reserved in the bestowing of honors, but who had the truest sense of lord Hardwicke's zeal, knowledge, and integrity, who treated him through the course of a long and glorious reign, with particular esteem and confidence, and always spoke of him in a manner which shewed, that he set as high a value on the man, as on the minister. This testimony from a prince remarkable for truth and sincerity, does equal honor to the sovereign and to the subject.

His resignation of the great seal in November 1756, gave an universal concern to the nation, however divided at that time in other respects. But he still continued to serve the public in a more private station; though he had it in his choice, both in the last and present reign, whether he would again fill other public offices of high dignity.

His attendance at council, whenever his presence was necessary; at more private meetings, whenever his opinion was desired; at the house of lords, upon every occasion, where the course of public business required it; were the same, as when he filled one of the highest offices in the kingdom. He had a pleasure in giving the full exertion of his abilities to the state, without expecting or receiving any emoluments of any kind whatever; and he seemed only to have quitted the laborious details of the chancery, that he might be at more leisure to attend to such parts of the public service, as were of more general use to the community.

His reverence for the laws and constitution of his country, was equal to his extensive learning in them. This rendered him as tender of the just prerogatives invested in the crown for the benefit of the whole, as watchful to prevent the least incroachment upon the liberty of the subject.

The part, which he acted in planning, introducing, and supporting the *Bill for abolishing the heretable jurisdictions in Scotland*, and the share which he took beyond what his department required of him, in framing and promoting the other bills relating to that country, arose from his zeal to the protestant succession, his concern for the general happiness and improvement of the kingdom, and for the preservation of this equal and limited monarchy; which were the governing principles of his public conduct through life. And these, and other bills which might be mentioned, were strong proofs of his talents as a legislator.

In

In the character of a ſtateſman, his knowledge of mankind, his acquaintance with hiſtory and treaties both ancient and modern, added to his long experience, penetration, and ſuperior underſtanding, enabled him to decide with force and exactneſs, upon all the queſtions in which he was conſulted by his collegues in other branches of the adminiſtration. And he had a peculiar talent of analyſing ſuch queſtions, by ſtating the arguments on both ſides in a comprehenſive and pointed view.

In judicature, his firmneſs and dignity were evidently derived from his conſummate knowledge and talents; and the mildneſs and humanity with which he tempered it, from the beſt heart. He was wonderfully happy in his manner of debating cauſes upon the bench, which he did copiouſly and elaborately. His apprehenſion was ſo quick and ſteady, that it was unneceſſary to repeat facts or reaſonings, which had once been ſtated to him, a ſecond time. His attention to the arguments from the bar was ſo cloſe, and ſo undiſturbed by impatience, or any paſſion or affection of his mind, that he condeſcended to learn from the meaneſt, whilſt he every day inſtructed and ſurpriſed the ableſt. He gave the utmoſt ſcope to the objections which preſt ſtrongeſt againſt his opinion, and often improved them. But his judgment was ſo correct and excellent, that even his unpremeditated opinions were generally acknowledged to be profound, and to turn upon the beſt points which the cauſe afforded; would bear examination when reduced into written reports; and gave the higheſt ſatisfaction to the parties for their juſtice, and to the lawyers, for the ſkill and diſcernment with which he formed them; *Etiam quos contrà ſtatuit æquos & placatos dimiſit.*

His extraordinary diſpatch of the buſineſs of the court of chancery, increaſed as it was in his time, beyond what had been known in any former, on account of his eſtabliſhed reputation there, and the extenſion of the commerce and riches of the nation, was an advantage to the ſuitor, inferior only to that ariſing from the acknowledged equity, perſpicuity, and preciſion of his decrees.

The manner in which he preſided in the houſe of lords; added order and dignity to that aſſembly, and expedition to the buſineſs tranſacted there; his acquaintance with the rules and precedents of it, preſerving the ſtricteſt decorum; and his maſterly abilities in preparing and conducting matters of parliamentary proceeding, having gained him more weight there, than perhaps ever belonged to any one of his predeceſſors.

His talents as a ſpeaker in the ſenate, as well as on the bench, have left too ſtrong an impreſſion, to need being dilated upon to thoſe, who had often heard him. To their memories it will be ſufficient to recall, that whenever lord Hardwicke delivered his ſentiments in public, he ſpoke with a natural and manly eloquence, unſullied by falſe ornaments, declamatory flouriſhes, or perſonal invectives. He had a method and arrangement in his topics, which gradually intereſted, enlightened, and convinced the hearer. When he quoted precedents of any kind, either in law, hiſtory,

hiſtory, or the forms of parliament, he applied them with the greateſt ſkill, and at the ſame time with the greateſt fairneſs. And whenever he argued, his reaſons were ſupported and ſtrengthened by the moſt appoſite caſes and examples, which the ſubject would allow. In queſtions of ſtate and policy, he drew his principles from the ableſt authorities in legiſlation, and the art of government; and in queſtions of juriſprudence, from the pureſt ſources of the laws and conſtitution of his own country; and, when the occaſion called for it, of others. His manner was graceful and affecting; modeſt, yet commanding; his voice peculiarly clear and harmonious, and even loud and ſtrong, for the greater part of his time. With theſe talents for public ſpeaking, the integrity of his character gave a luſtre to his eloquence, which thoſe who oppoſed him, felt in the debate, and which operated moſt powerfully on the minds of thoſe, who heard him with a view to information and conviction. And it were to be wiſhed, for the ſake of poſterity, that his ſpeeches on a variety of important points of law, equity and policy, were preſerved in a more laſting regiſter, than that of the memory of his contemporaries.

Convinced of the great principles of religion, and ſteady in the practice of the duties of it, he maintained a reputation of virtue, which added dignity to the ſtations which he filled, and authority to the laws which he adminiſtered.

His attachment to the national church, was accompained with a full conviction, that a tender regard to the rights of conſcience, and a temper of lenity and moderation, are not only right in themſelves, but moſt conducive in their conſequences to the honor and intereſt of the church. The ſtrongeſt recommendation to him of the clergy to the eccleſiaſtical preferments in his diſpoſal, was, their fitneſs for the diſcharge of the duties of their profeſſion. And that reſpectable body owes a particular obligation to his lordſhip, and his predeceſſor lord Talbot, for the oppoſition which they gave in the houſe of lords, to the *act for the more eaſy recovery of tythes, church rates, and other eccleſiaſtical dues, from the people called Quakers*, which might have proved of dangerous conſequence to the rights and property of the clergy; tho' it had paſſed the other houſe, and was known to be powerfully ſupported.

Many facts and anecdotes which do him honor, may be recollected and ſet down, when reſentments, partialities, and conteſts are forgot.

The amiableneſs of his manners, and his engaging addreſs, rendered him as much beloved by thoſe, who had acceſs to him, as he was revered and admired for his greater talents, by the whole nation. And as few, in any age or country, equalled him in the latter reſpects, ſo none exceed him in the former.

His conſtitution in the earlier part of his life, did not ſeem to promiſe ſo much health and vigour, as he afterwards enjoyed for a longer period, than uſually falls to the ſhare of men of more robuſt habit of body, and leſs oppreſſed by an unremitting application to affairs of the moſt difficult and complicated nature. But his

care

care to guard againſt any exceſſes, ſecured to him an almoſt uninterrupted tenour of health: and his habitual maſtery of his paſſions, gave him a firmneſs and traquillity of mind unabated by the fatigues and anxieties of buſineſs; from the daily circle of which, he roſe to the enjoyment of the converſation of his family and friends, with the ſpirits of a perſon entirely vacant and diſengaged.

Till the latter end of his ſeventy-third year, he preſerved the appearance and vivacity of youth in his countenance, in which the characters of dignity and amiableneſs were remarkably united. And he ſupported the diſorder which proved fatal to him, of many months continuance, and of the moſt depreſſing kind, with an uncommon patience, reſignation, and even chearfulneſs, enjoying the ſtrength and quickneſs of his underſtanding till the cloſe of life. He died in the ſeventy-fourth year of his age, at his houſe in Groſvenor-ſquare, on Tueſday in the afternoon, March 6th, 1764, at a time, when the ſituation of public affairs rendered his death a loſs as unſeaſonable, as it would at any time have been important. And his name will be remembered by poſterity which the ſame reverence which attends the moſt celebrated civil characters in the annals of this country.

That ſo ſhining and exemplary a character ſhould have been attacked by calumny, is not to be wondered at; that it ſhould have eſcaped ſo long, can only be attributed to its acknowledged worth; men of all parties have concurred in deteſting the mean and malicious attempts which have been lately made to aſperſe his good name to poſterity.

His body lies interred at Wimple in Cambridgeſhire, by that of his lady, Margaret, daughter of Charles Cocks, eſq; of Worceſterſhire, and niece of lord chancellor Sommers. The union between them had been moſt affectionate and conſtant, and her private virtues and endowments of mind, will render her memory for ever dear and reſpected, by all who had the happineſs of knowing her.

THE

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